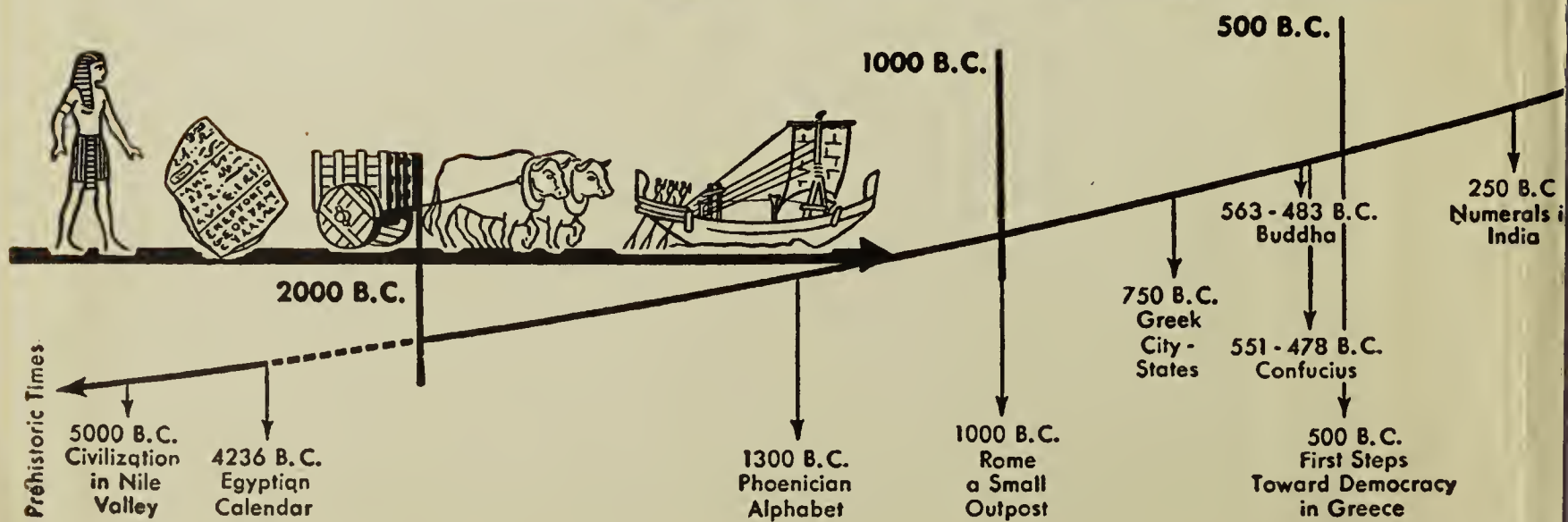
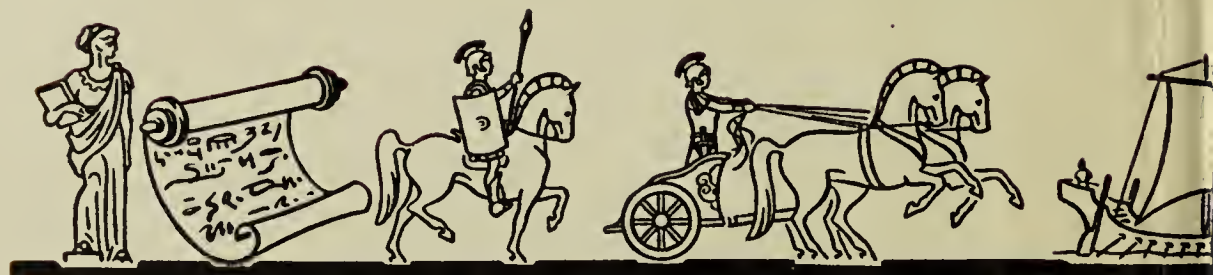




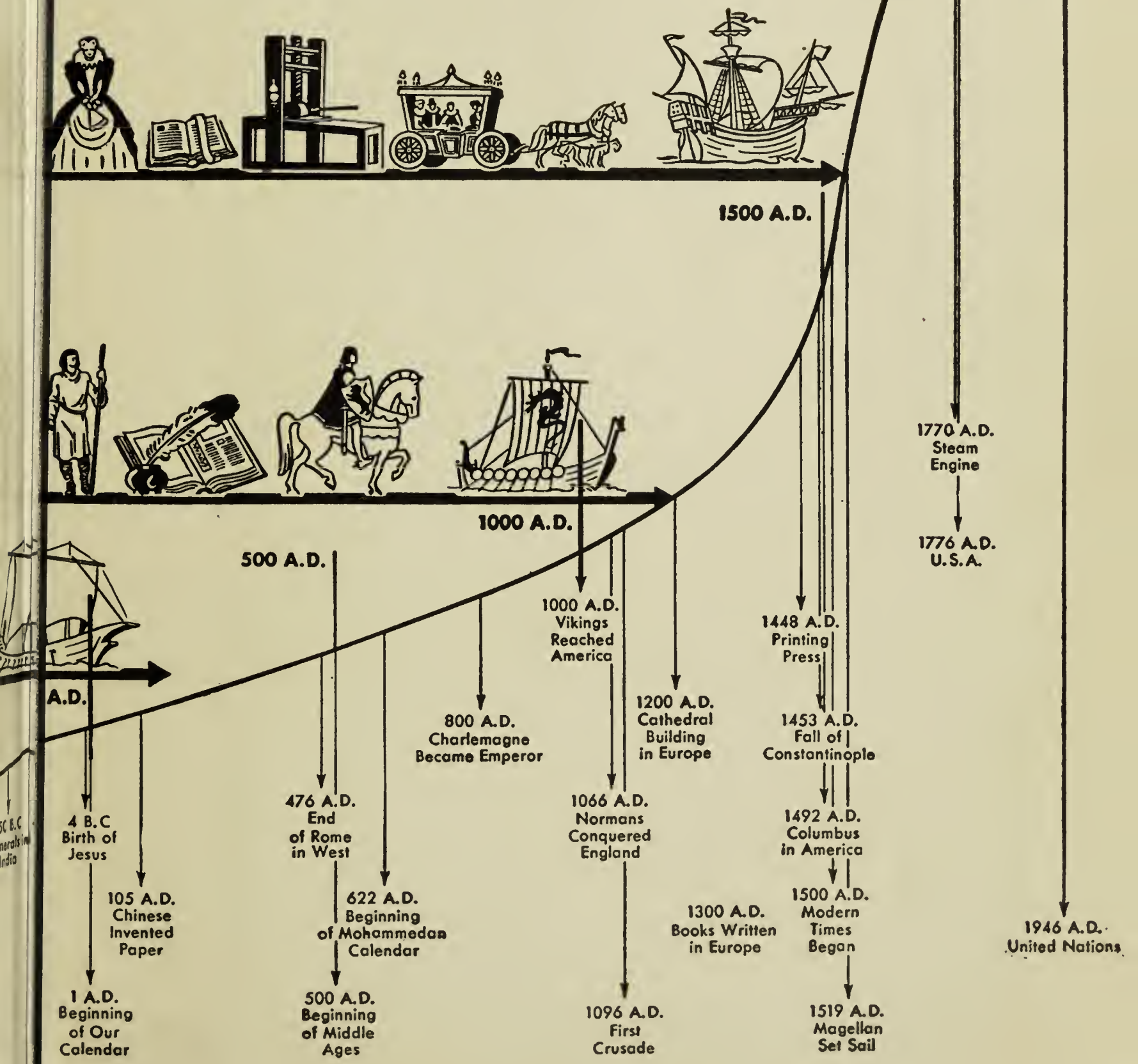
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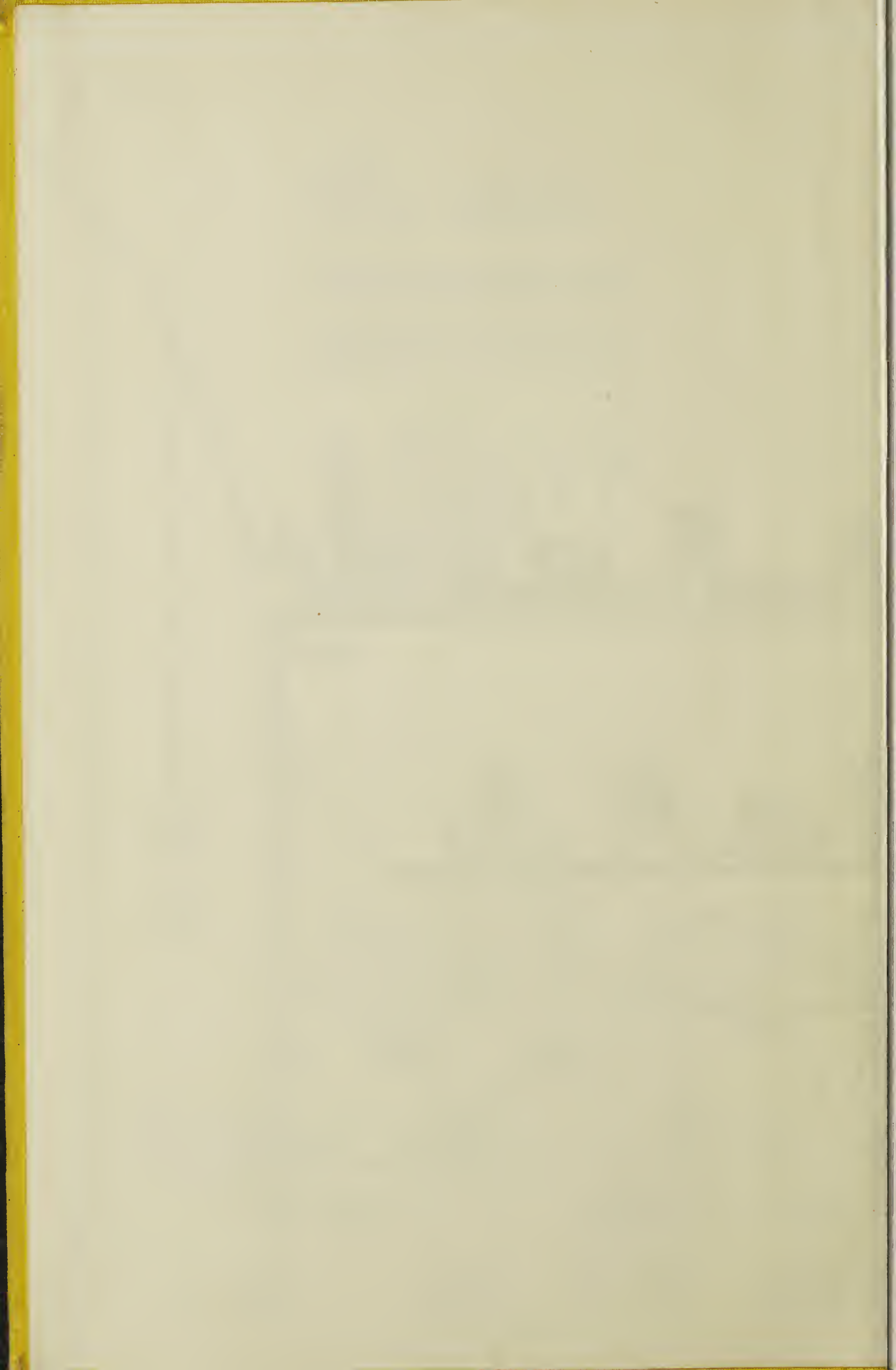


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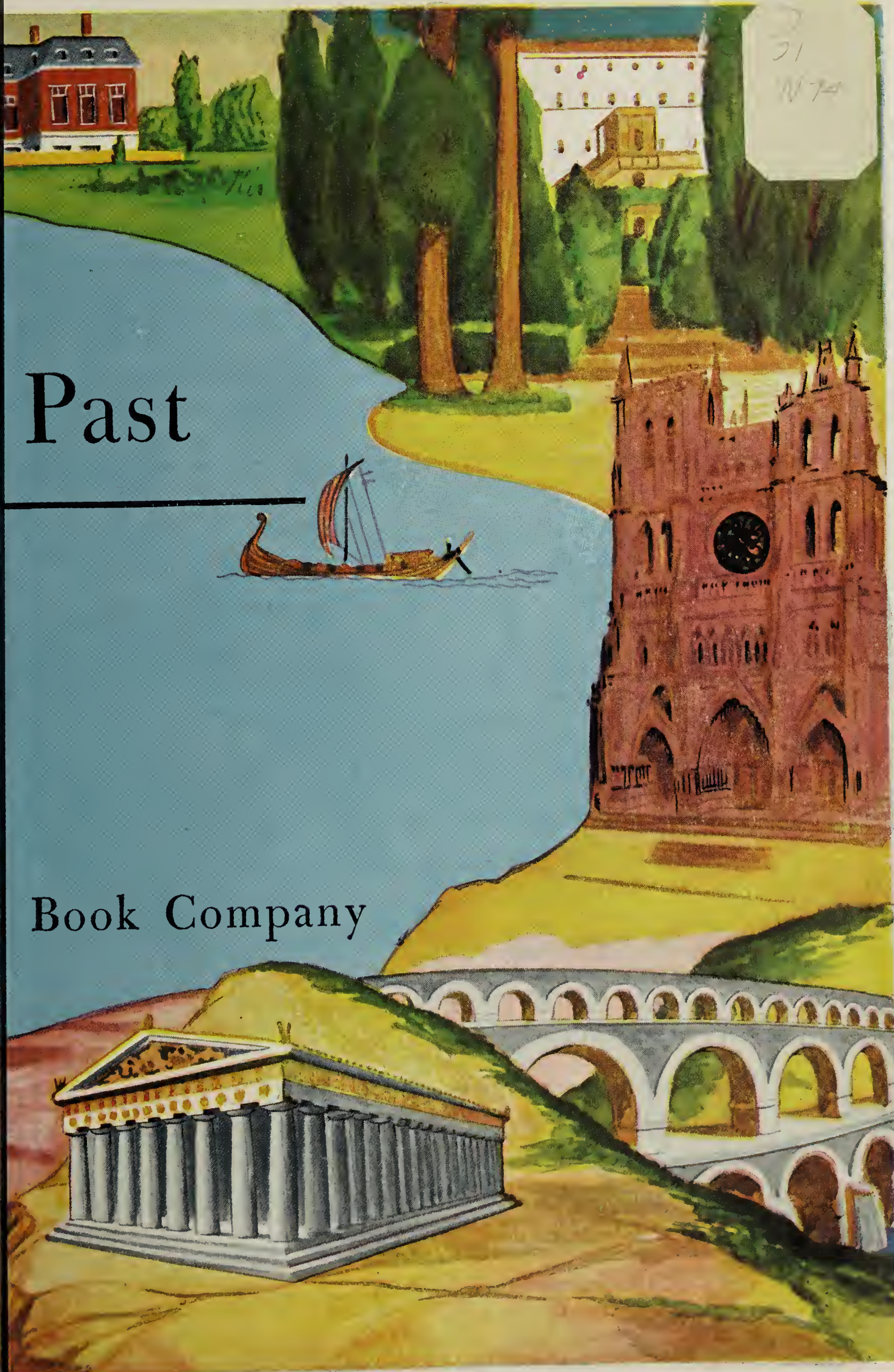


American



Past

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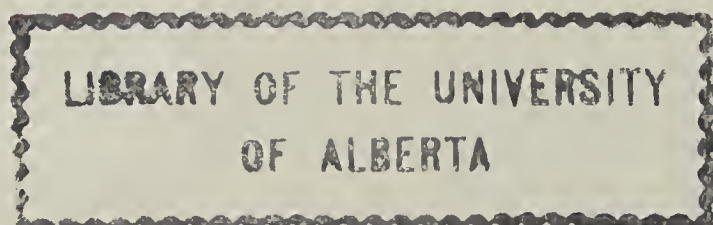
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Educ 812

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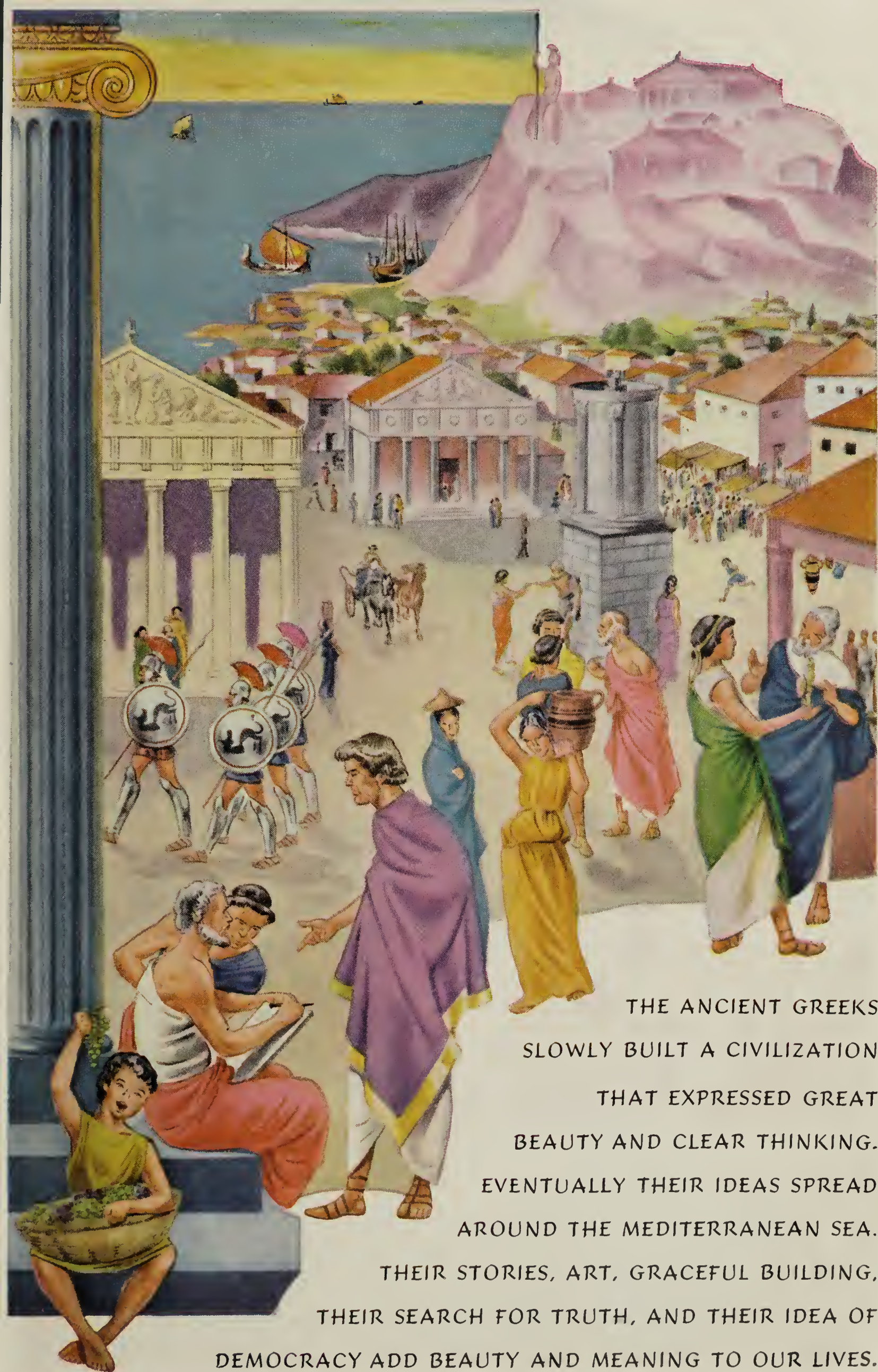
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THE ANCIENT GREEKS
SLOWLY BUILT A CIVILIZATION
THAT EXPRESSED GREAT
BEAUTY AND CLEAR THINKING.
EVENTUALLY THEIR IDEAS SPREAD
AROUND THE MEDITERRANEAN SEA.
THEIR STORIES, ART, GRACEFUL BUILDING,
THEIR SEARCH FOR TRUTH, AND THEIR IDEA OF
DEMOCRACY ADD BEAUTY AND MEANING TO OUR LIVES.

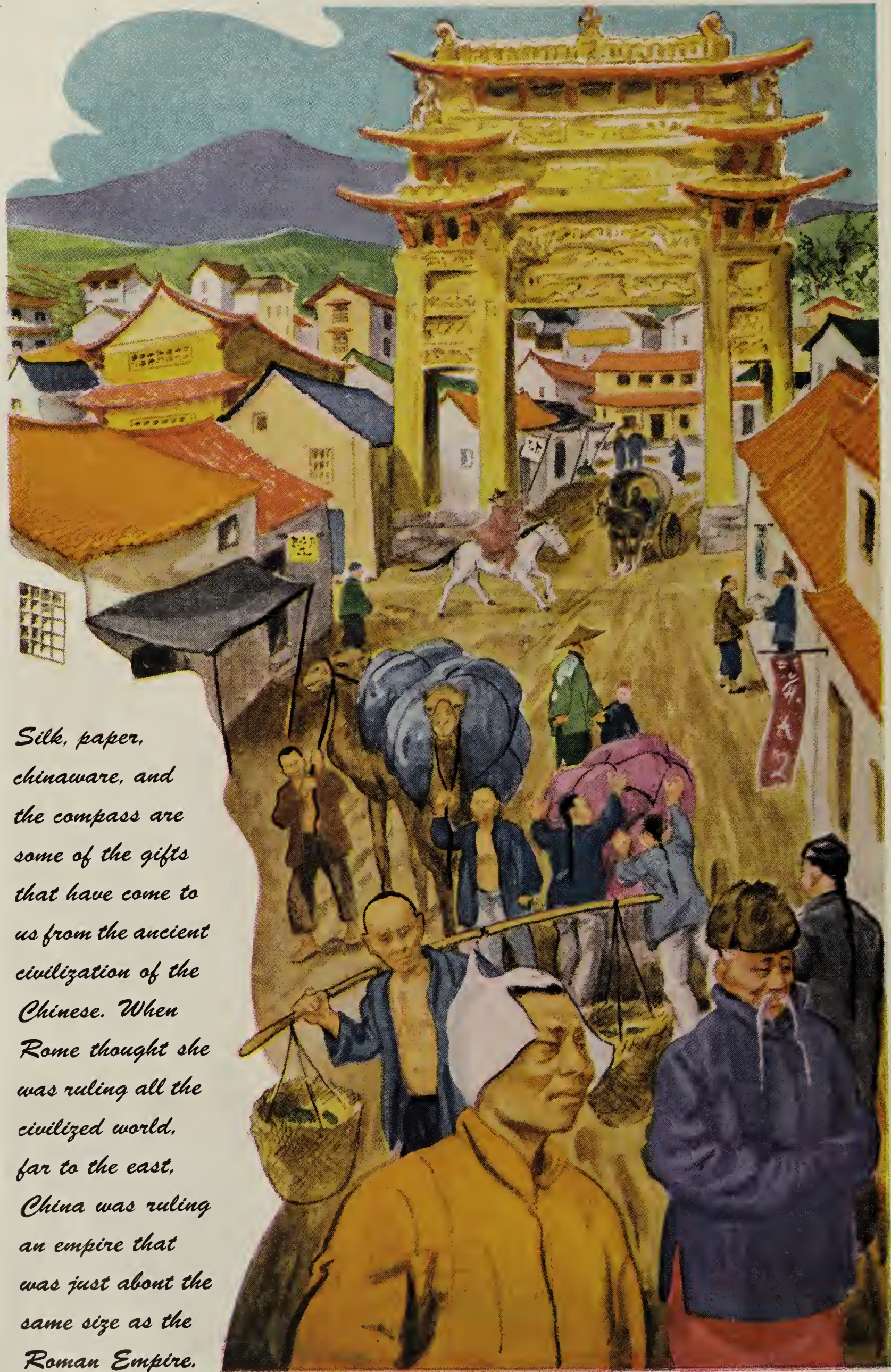


TWO THOUSAND YEARS AGO ROME HAD UNITED ALL THE CIVILIZED WORLD THAT SHE KNEW ABOUT. FROM HER CONQUERED PEOPLES, AND ESPECIALLY FROM GREECE, SHE LEARNED MUCH. THE LETTERS IN THESE WORDS YOU ARE READING ARE ROMAN. SO ARE SOME OF THE WORDS. MANY OF OUR IDEAS IN LAW, IN BUILDING, AND IN RELIGION COME FROM ANCIENT ROME.

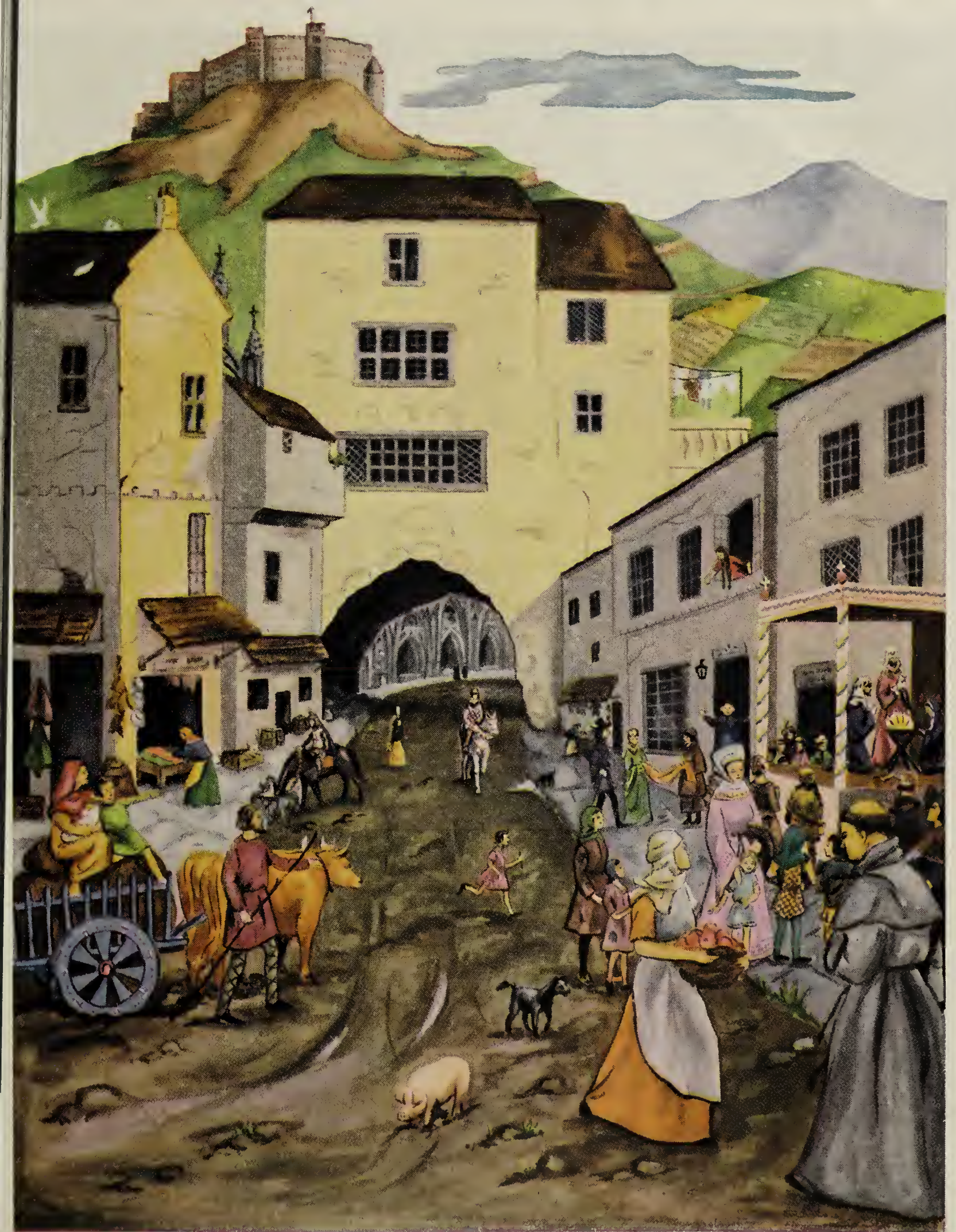
When the Egyptians, Greeks,
and Romans were at their
height, civilizations had also
developed in India.
Our numbering system
came originally from
colorful India, where
great wealth and
deep poverty made
scenes like this.

When the Egyptians, Greeks,
and Romans were at their
height, civilizations had also
developed in India.
Our numbering system
came originally from
colorful India, where
great wealth and
deep poverty made
scenes like this.





Silk, paper, chinaware, and the compass are some of the gifts that have come to us from the ancient civilization of the Chinese. When Rome thought she was ruling all the civilized world, far to the east, China was ruling an empire that was just about the same size as the Roman Empire.



When the Roman Empire broke up, life in Western Europe became hard and dangerous. People sought the protection of strong men and lived in tight little communities. The Christian Church gave hope and comfort and became strong. Beautiful Gothic architecture has come to us from the days of the Middle Ages.



Late in the Middle Ages the people of Europe were again trading busily and widely, building cities, and exchanging ideas. Strong kings were forming the nations of Spain, France, and England. Scholars and artists were discovering the life of the ancient Greeks and Romans. This exciting reawakening brought new ideas about man and the world.

From reawakening Europe explorers set sail
to reach India and the lands of eastern Asia.

They discovered two new continents,
North America and South America.

They sailed around the world

with new foods,

golden treasure,

and stories

of strange

lands and people.





The illustration depicts a prehistoric scene. Two hunters, a man and a woman, are standing on a large, light-colored rock. The man is holding a long spear, and the woman is holding a large animal, possibly a deer or goat, by its antlers. They are both looking down at a family of three people who are gathered below. The family consists of a man, a woman, and a child. The man is kneeling on the ground, and the woman is standing next to him, holding the child. The child is pointing up at the hunters. The background shows a hilly landscape with some vegetation and a blue sky.

Unit 1

Prehistoric

Times

PREHISTORIC TIMES

Old Stone Age

HISTORIC TIMES

About
4,000 B.C.
to Present

New Stone Age

14,000
to 6,000
Years
Ago

50,000 - 14,000
Years Ago

100,000 - 50,000
Years Ago

More Than
Half a
Million
Years Ago

First
Calendar
4236 B.C.

New Stone
Age Men

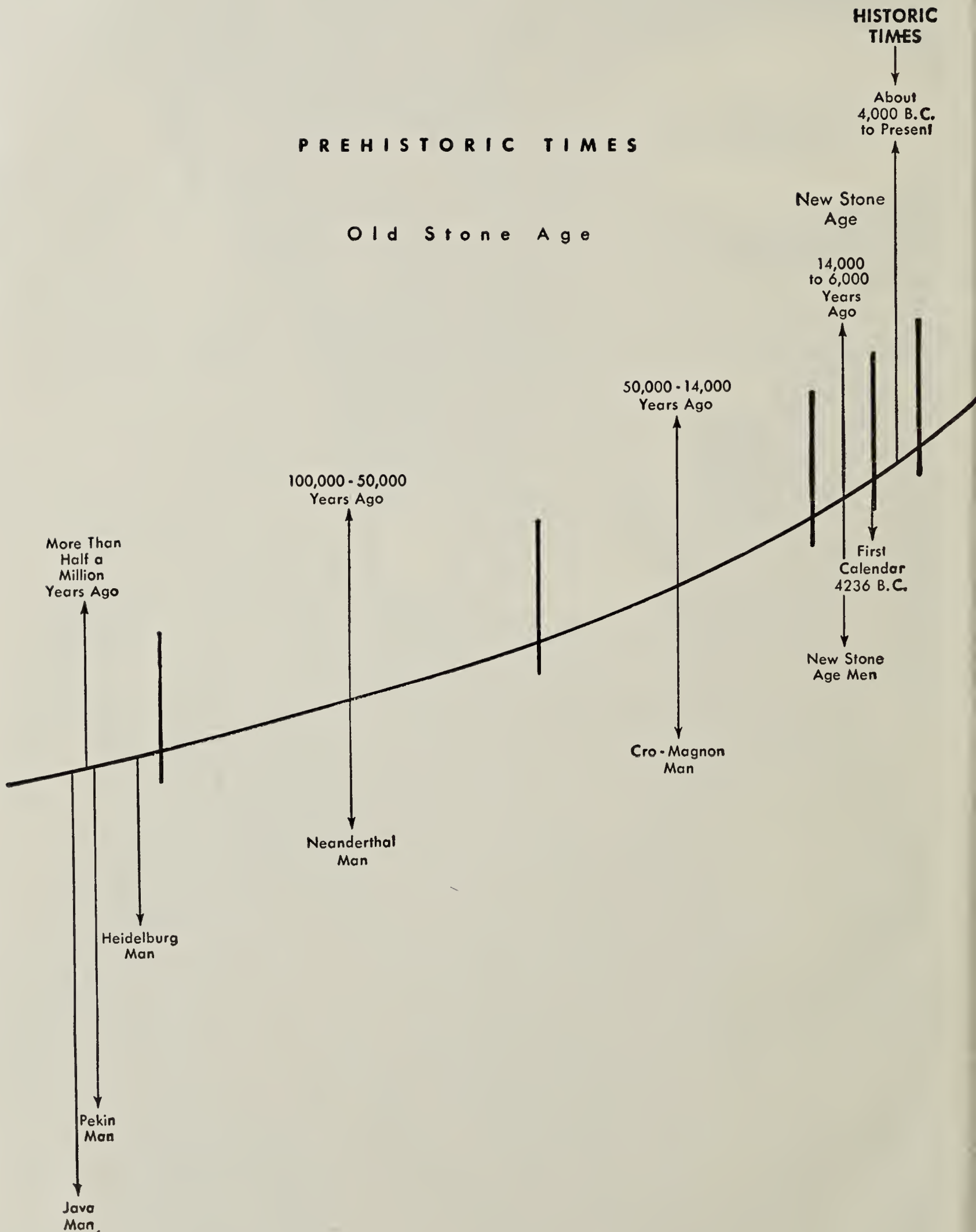
Cro-Magnon
Man

Neanderthal
Man

Heidelberg
Man

Pekin
Man

Java
Man



Before You Begin to Read Chapter 1

You are about to read the first chapter of a book that tells the interesting story of people who lived before us. In our country today we have good ways of living because people who lived before us in many parts of the world learned to do the things that make our way of life possible. Our ways of talking, playing, working, worshiping, building, learning, traveling, trading, and many other things have come to us out of the long ago.

This first chapter begins the long and thrilling adventure of people who lived far back in the days before history was written. As you continue with your book you will trace the progress of the world from the days before people knew about fire, or tools, or before they could speak, to the time when some brave men discovered and explored America.

Your book is divided into eight parts, or units. This is the first unit. Each one in the book tells an important part of the world's history. In each unit there are maps, time lines, and many pictures that will help you to understand and enjoy the achievements of the people who lived in many different places in the past.

While you are studying the chapters in each unit, you will want to do certain things to help you understand and remember

the history of the people who lived before us. Your teacher will suggest some of these things. At the end of each chapter there is a section called **THINGS TO DO**, which will also help you to understand the history you are studying. It will be wise to look at the list of **THINGS TO DO** before you start studying the chapter. The class may plan together the activities that will be done by each of you working alone, those that will be done by groups, and those that will need the co-operation of the entire class to do successfully.

You will begin in this first chapter to see how the earliest people prepared the way for our own world today.



Chapter 1

Early Man

The earth is more than two billion years old. It is so old that we can hardly imagine how many years it has existed. Scientists can tell the age of the earth by studying the changes which have taken place in the layers of rock and sand and soil that are near the earth's surface.

A half a billion years ago plants, animals, fish, and reptiles were living on the earth. About 200,000,000 years ago was the "age of dinosaurs (dī'nō·sôr)." Those heavy, stupid animals roamed the earth for many centuries. Skeletons of some of the dinosaurs have been found, and we know a great deal about how those heavy beasts lived. But the dinosaurs finally died out. Like many other early animals and plants, they have become extinct.

THE EARLIEST PEOPLE

About a million years ago, the first people lived on the earth. A million years is such a long period of time that it is difficult to imagine how far those years stretch into the past. If we think of one million years as sixty minutes on a giant time clock, as shown on page 4, a minute is over 16,000 years long. People have been civilized for less than half a minute on this giant clock. The white space on the clock shows that half a minute.

Discovery of Remains of Early People

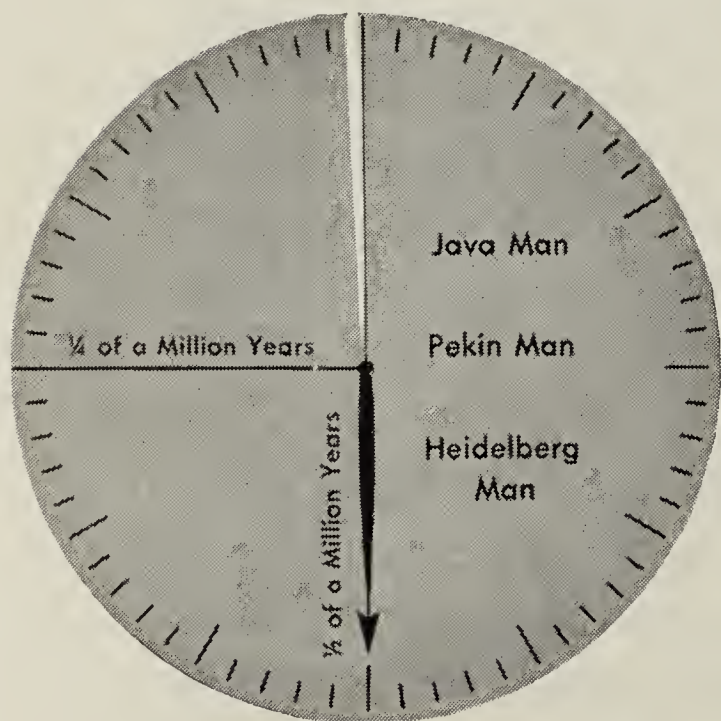
We do not know much about the earliest people who lived on the earth. Only small pieces of their skeletons have been

found. In 1891 a Dutch scholar named Eugene Dubois (dü·bwä') found a part of a skull and some teeth in Java. He found them deep in a layer of soil that had been on the surface of the earth a million years ago. Dubois could tell from the skull and teeth about how their owner looked. This ancient ancestor of ours was called Java Man by the scholars. He was perhaps

the earliest man of whom we have any record.

Near Peking, China, are large quarries, where men of modern times have been mining limestone for many years. In 1927 a tooth was found far down in the quarries, below the earth's present surface. The tooth had belonged to another early man, whom the scientists call Peking Man. Later, traces of forty skeletons were discovered in the quarry. There must have been a

community of Peking men. They probably looked very much like Java Man, but they may have been more intelligent. Peking



Man also lived about a million years ago. See the small clock on page 4.

Other remains of very early people have been found at various places. In 1935 a part of a skeleton was found in Africa in a layer of soil which showed it to be hundreds of thousands of years old. The remains of other very early people have been found near Heidelberg, Germany, and in other places. No doubt there are other groups of early people who lived on the earth long centuries ago, whose bones are still hidden in the rocks and soil. Perhaps scientists will some day discover them.

Then we shall learn more about early people and where and how they lived on the earth so many years ago.



Four types of earliest man.

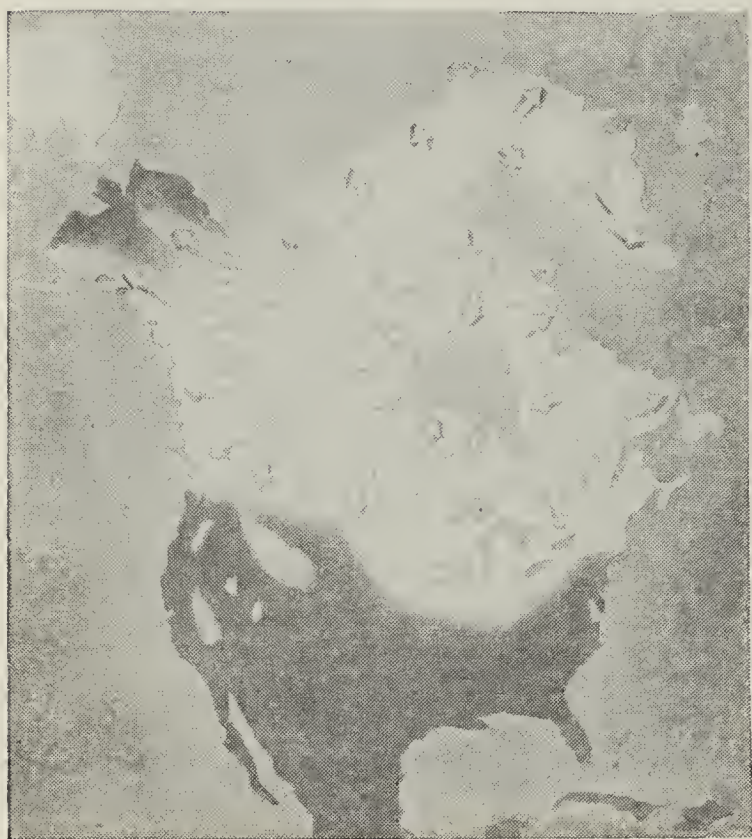
The "Ice Ages"

During the time man has lived on the earth, he has changed slowly in his looks, in his ability to do things, and in his habits of living. Perhaps one reason why he has changed is because the earth on which he lived has also changed during the past million years. There have been long spells of hot weather, cold weather, dry weather, and wet weather. Sometimes these spells of weather lasted for thousands and thousands of years.

Scientists tell us that at least four different times in the past million years, glaciers have covered large sections of the northern part of the world. Each glacier lasted hundreds of thousands of years, covering areas of the world with ice. These long periods of cold are known as the four Ice Ages. Between the Ice Ages were periods of warmer weather, when the ice slowly

melted. The glaciers retreated to the regions about the North Pole, much as they are today. Then the climate grew milder, and plants and animals could live once more in places that had been buried in ice.

The fourth and last Ice Age ended about 14,000 years ago. Look again at your giant time clock. Fourteen thousand



The fourth ice cap in North America.

years is less than a minute on that clock. At that time the climate of northern Europe settled down to become somewhat the same as it is today, with warm summers and cold winters. The glacier melted back and stayed in the region about the North Pole and on the tops of mountains. Certain scientists think that we are living today in a period between glaciers, and that sometime, perhaps thousands of years from now, the climate will change again. Large sections of the world may be covered once more by ice.

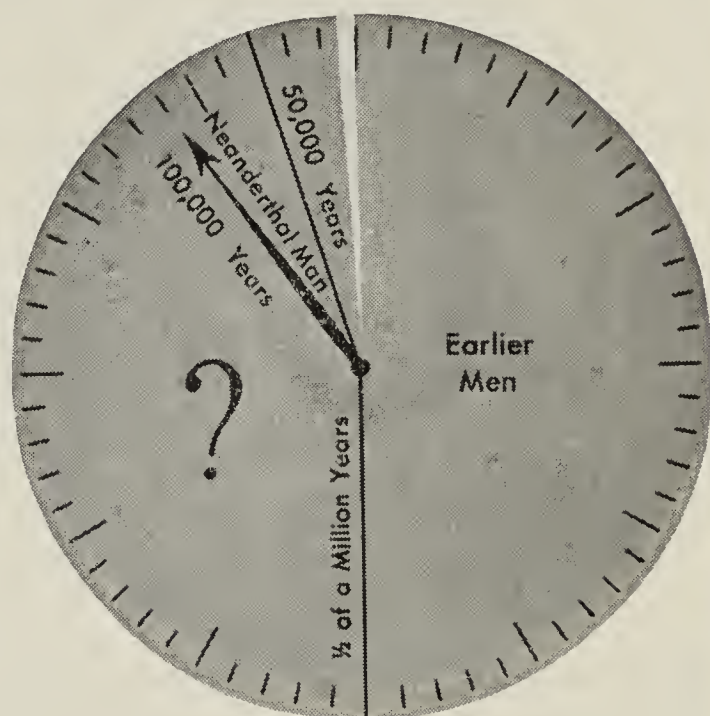
When the ice melted, great masses of dirt and rocks that had been scraped along by the glaciers were left on the surface of the earth. The bones of a few primitive men and women have been discovered in these deposits of dirt. Scientists know that these people must have lived about the same time that the masses of dirt and rock were left by the ice.

Neanderthal Man

Now we jump over a long period on the giant clock, about which we know little. We come to the time when the fourth and last glacier was moving very slowly down over the continent of Europe, about 100,000 to 50,000 years ago.

During this period we know that there were many people living in Europe and around the Mediterranean Sea. These men are called Neanderthals (nä·än'dēr·täls), because the first traces of them were discovered in the Neander Valley in Germany in 1807. Since then many of their well-preserved skeletons and stone tools have been dug up. The relics show that Neanderthal Man probably lived and wandered all over Europe for about 50,000 years.

The Neanderthals carefully buried their dead and with them utensils of daily use. So many skeletons of Neanderthal Man have been unearthed that scientists can give us a good idea of how he looked. He was a short and heavy creature, about five feet tall. His bones were thick and his joints large. He carried his big head thrust forward. He had not learned to stand up



very straight but slouched along on his bent legs. He had an immense nose, a huge mouth, but almost no sign of a chin. His thick-set body was probably covered with hair. Neanderthal Man was not a handsome fellow by any means, but he had learned to do certain things rather well. The stone tools and weapons that he left behind him were a great improvement over the stone tools left by earlier men.

About 50,000 years ago Neanderthal men disappeared. It is not known just what became of them. They may have been frozen by the cold wave from the north, or they may have perished in their search for new homes as they fled from the glacier.

Cro-Magnon Man

At about the same time that Neanderthal men vanished from Europe, a new type of people appeared on the scene. Where

they came from no one knows for certain. Possibly they wandered into Europe from Asia or Africa. They were more like us in appearance. Their remains, which are found in many parts of Europe, particularly along the Mediterranean Sea, tell us that they were a tall, erect, good-looking group of people, who had developed better ways of living than Neanderthal Man. There were several groups of these better developed people. The name by which all of them are frequently called is Cro-Magnon (krō'mā'nyôn') Man, because the remains of one group of them were found in Cro-Magna, France.

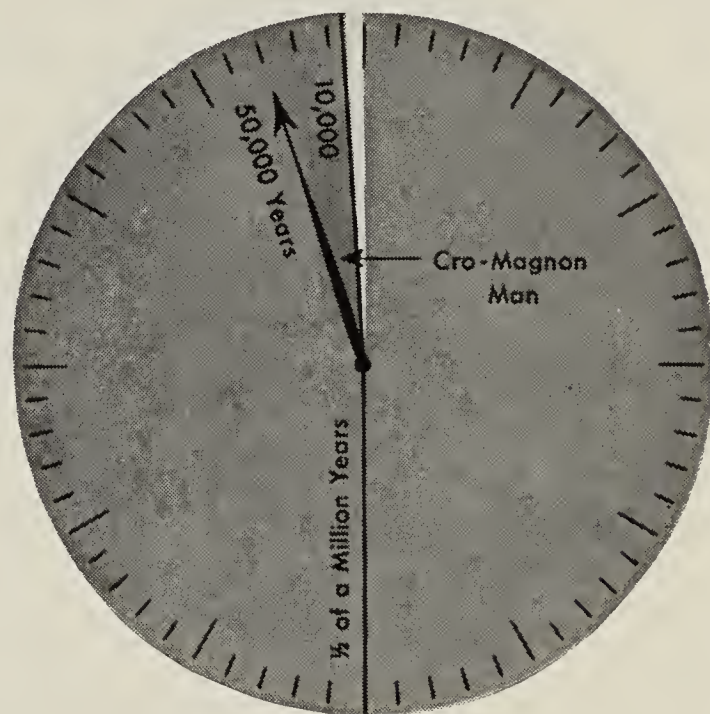
Wherever they came from, Cro-Magnon Man and others similar to him had improved their ways of living very slowly during the thousands of years before they landed in Europe. Cro-Magnon men lived in Europe from about 50,000 to approximately 14,000 years ago. During that time they slowly learned better ways of living.

These scientists are examining articles left by early man which they have dug from the ground. Can you guess what the object is that the woman is holding?



Stone Age Men

We have been calling the earliest people by the names they were given by the scientists who found their bones. Now we shall call them by another name, *Stone Age Men*. We use this name because stone was the chief material they used in their struggle to keep alive during those early times. From stone they made the weapons that protected them and the tools that helped them get along. No doubt very early men used wood, too, but wood rots quickly when it is exposed to the weather, so the story left by earliest men is told in their works of stone.



Scientists tell us that although the stone implements left by the Cro-Magnons were better than those left by earlier men, they were still crudely fashioned. Stones were chipped into different shapes. People who used tools of chipped stone are known as *Old Stone Age Men*. We say they lived in the Old Stone Age.

About 14,000 years ago still another group of people came into Europe from the south. These people had learned to make much better stone tools by polishing or grinding. Their ways of doing things and habits of living were such a great step forward over the ways of the men who had lived before them that the people who lived from about 14,000 to about 6,000 years ago are called by another name, *New Stone Age Men*.

The long, long period of the Stone Age is divided into two parts: the Old Stone Age and the New Stone Age. The Old Stone Age, or the Rough Stone Age, as it is sometimes called, is by far the longer part of the period. It took our ancestors all those years to take their first slow steps along the road to better

living, and during that time their only tools were made of chipped stone. In the few thousand years from 14,000 to about 6,000 years ago, called the New Stone Age, or often the Late Stone Age, men made rapid advances in ways of living with their improved stone tools to help them. The speed with which

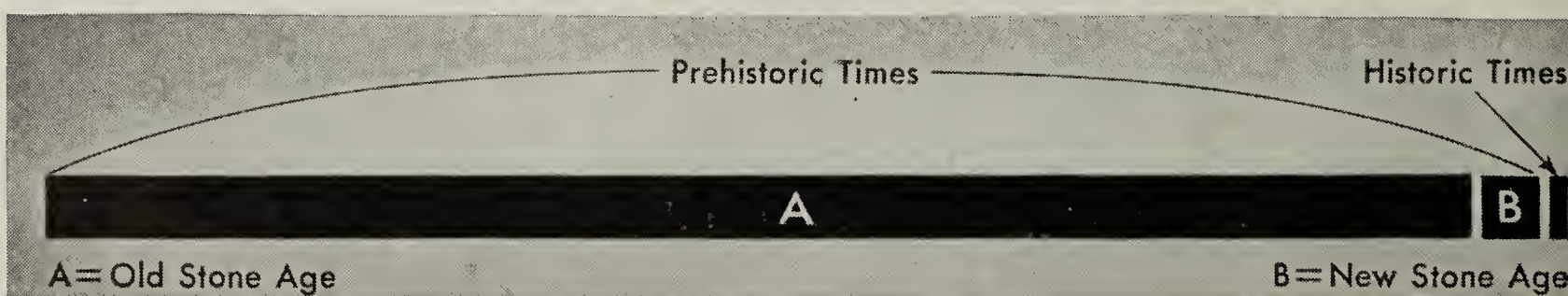
they developed is great compared with their ancestors of the Old Stone Age.

Below is another picture of the Stone Ages. The long black line represents the Old Stone Age and the short black line represents the New Stone Age. The tiny line is historic times.

New Stone Age men were close to civilized times. New Stone Age men had not learned to write, so

we say they lived in *prehistoric times*. We say that *historic times* began when people began to write and were able to leave written records. *Pre* means before, and prehistoric means before written history. It was the descendants of the New Stone Age men who did learn to write and left us the first written records. Stone Age men did not know how to write.

We have taken a very brief glimpse at some of the prehistoric people. We know little about the earliest people of the earth. Only a few scattered remains have been found. But we know more about Neanderthal men, who appeared in Europe about 100,000 years ago. And we know still more about Cro-Magnon



men, who appeared 50,000 years ago. All these people lived in the Old Stone Age. The New Stone Age began about 14,000 years ago. It was much shorter than the Old Stone Age.

THINGS TO DO

I. QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS. After studying carefully this chapter, "Early Man," answer these questions and others your teacher may ask.

1. How old do we think the earth is? When were the dinosaurs living on the earth?
2. How long do some scientists think that people have lived on the earth?
3. Who was Java Man? Pekin Man?
4. What big changes in climate have taken place on the earth?



5. What other people beside Java Man and Pekin Man probably lived on the earth more than half a million years ago? Look at your map on page 11.
6. About when and where did Neanderthal people live? Cro-Magnon people?
7. What is the meaning of "historic times"? "prehistoric times"?
8. Why do we call prehistoric times Stone Age times?
9. What is the difference between the Old Stone Age and the New Stone Age?

II. HISTORY DEFINITIONS AND NEW WORDS. You will understand better the history you study if you make sure that you know the meaning of certain important words and phrases that explain the story of the past. Copy neatly in your notebook the words that are given below. After each word or group of words write a short definition that explains it. Put a copy of the best definitions in your Class Book, too.

<i>history</i>	<i>prehistoric times</i>	<i>dinosaur</i>	<i>Old Stone Age</i>
<i>historic times</i>	<i>scientist</i>	<i>extinct</i>	<i>New Stone Age</i>

III. THE MAIN IDEAS. In each chapter that you study there will be some very important ideas that you should remember. The headings in black capital letters on the pages will help you to find those important ideas. On a sheet of paper, copy the black heading in this chapter on Early Man. Under this heading write a few sentences in your own words that tell the main ideas of the chapter. Your teacher will help you to do this as a class exercise before you do it alone. Put your completed work in your notebook.

IV. A CHART OF EARLY MAN. Divide a sheet of paper into three columns so that it looks like this.

13

Prehistoric People	When They Lived	Where They Lived
--------------------	-----------------	------------------

In the first column list the names of prehistoric people who have been studied by scientists. Start your list in the first column with the name of the earliest people discovered so far, and keep the other names in order, according to the time that scientists think they lived. In the second column put the dates when they lived. In the third column put the names of the places on the earth where their remains were discovered.

V. THE MAP TELLS A STORY. Appoint a class committee to make a large map of the world. On the map draw pictures of early people. Show where their remains have been discovered. Label the pictures with the names of the people, the places their remains were found, and the approximate dates when they lived.

VI. THE CLOCK GAME. Appoint a committee to make a giant time piece for your classroom like the one on page 4. You can play a game with the clock by having one of your classmates place the hand at a certain date while someone names the prehistoric people who lived at that time. Another way to play the clock game is to have someone name a group of prehistoric people while a classmate places the hand at the date.

VII. A TIME LINE. In your notebook draw a time line of the Stone Age. Color the Old Stone Age blue and the New Stone Age yellow. Your time line should look something like the one on page 10.

VIII. EUGENE DUBOIS WRITES A LETTER. Imagine that you are Eugene Dubois and that you are in Java. Write a letter to a friend in Europe telling what you are doing in Java and why you are there. Look for information in library books and in encyclopedias.

IX. A CHART OF OUR EARLIEST ANCESTORS. Divide a sheet of paper into three columns. In the first column list the names of prehistoric men that have been discovered by scientists. Start your list with the name of our oldest ancestors and keep the other names in order according to the time when they lived. In the second column opposite each name put the approximate dates when our oldest ancestors lived. In the third column put the names of the places on the earth where their bones were discovered.



X. A RADIO BROADCAST. A group may pretend that they are scientific detectives giving a radio broadcast to an audience that does not understand how scientists have unlocked the secrets of the past. Explain to the audience how scientists have solved the mysteries of prehistoric man. The following are some suggested topics for the broadcasters:

1. Relics of the Past, or Pieces of the Puzzle
2. The Crust of the Earth Holds Evidence
3. The Glaciers Tell a Story
4. Scientists Are Detectives
5. Eugene Dubois, the Bone Hunter
6. Putting the Puzzle Together



Chapter 2

Life in the Old Stone Age

The very earliest people probably lived in the trees. They came down to the ground only to search for food to keep them from starving to death. At first they did not dare stay on the ground very long at a time, lest they be eaten by the beasts who were also searching for a meal. They must always be ready to climb to safety in the treetops.

The earliest people were gatherers of food. They gathered what nuts and fruits they could get in the trees and stole eggs and young birds from nests, but that was not enough to fill their empty stomachs. They came down from the trees to get roots, berries, snails, worms, bugs, snakes, frogs, and other tidbits that could be found. They greedily devoured their food raw.

Our earliest ancestors must have been a strange sight as they moved in groups through the jungle on their crooked legs, their heavy, hairy bodies crouched over, searching for food and on the lookout for danger. Nevertheless, they were capable creatures. Without clothes, without tools or weapons, without fire, they managed to stay alive. They also learned many things that have been important to people ever since that time. Some of these things seem very easy to us, because we are so used to them. But early man worked very hard to invent them for us.

GROUND DWELLERS

Men Learned to Protect Themselves



Gradually man discovered that he could protect himself from the smaller animals by chasing them away with stones or heavy branches that he found nearby. Later, he began to carry stones and clubs with him when he was on the ground. He looked for stones that were a good shape to throw. When primitive man began to use stone to help him, he had taken the first step in the development of weapons. *He used something he found in nature to increase his own strength.*

People learned that if they stayed together in groups, it was safe to remain longer periods on the ground. Not only was man safer from the animals when he stayed with a group, but he found life much pleasanter that way. Early men were afraid of everything around them. They did not understand why darkness came, or why there were storms. At night, when they had climbed into the trees, they liked to be near their companions in the darkness.

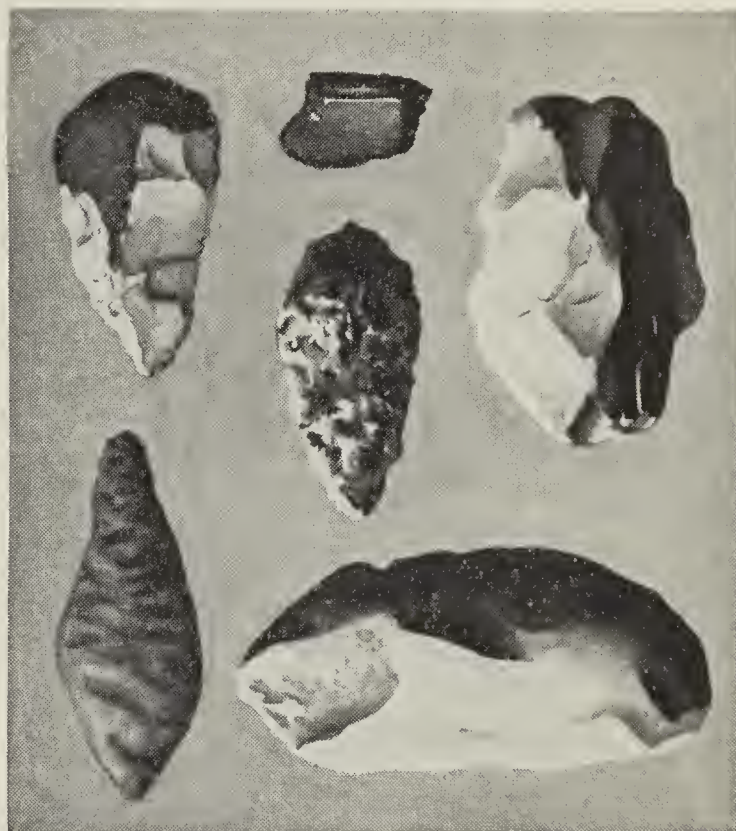
People became bolder and bolder as they learned to protect themselves, until at last they dared to make their homes on the ground. Scientists believe that by the time Java Man and Pekin Man lived, early men were no longer living in the trees. After men became ground dwellers, they still spent all of their time getting food. Their diet was about the same as it was when they lived in trees. They did not hunt large animals to eat, because they had no suitable weapons. They had no definite spot to live, but roamed from place to place in search of food. It was necessary to stay near water so that they could drink when they were thirsty. They slept on the ground at night.

Early Tools and Weapons

At first early people used the stones just as they found them shaped by nature. Then people took a great step forward. When

they could not find stones the right shape, they learned to *change* the stones to the shape they wanted. They did this by chipping pieces off the edges.

Man may have learned to chip stones just by accident. Perhaps he happened to pick up a stone with a very sharp edge. He noticed that it was more useful than a dull one when digging for roots or turning over the soil to find worms to eat. Maybe a piece of the stone chipped off while he was using it. The next time he was unable to find a sharp stone, perhaps he remembered this and tried to chip a piece by hitting it with another stone. His experiment worked. Very slowly, through the long, long period of the Old Stone Age, man learned to shape and sharpen his tools. His first tools



Chipped tools were a big step forward.

were very crude but he had begun to *improve* on what he found in nature, and he has been improving on it ever since.

Utensils left by Neanderthal men show that they knew much more about using and shaping stone than did Pekin men. Old Stone Age men found that flint was an excellent material for making tools because flint flakes easily. The Neanderthals shaped their tools by the same process earlier men used. They held a piece of flint in one hand and struck it with a harder stone which they used as a hammer. It had taken men hundreds of thousand of years to learn to do this well. Neanderthal Man was a better stone worker than any early people. In fact, he was a very skillful chipper.

Scientists tell us that by the time Cro-Magnon men came to Europe, they had thought of a new method of chipping stones.

Instead of holding one stone and striking it with another, Cro-Magnon people placed the flint on an anvil, or stone block. They held the flint down with another stone, and in this manner managed to hammer off smaller, more even chips. This method enabled the Cro-Magnons to make good flint knives with edges as sharp as razors. Then they learned to make another powerful weapon, the spear. With animal sinews, they attached deadly, stone spearheads to long wooden poles. This new weapon was a great help to Cro-Magnon men, because they could throw it and kill large beasts before they came too close.

The tools of the earliest men of the Old Stone Age were large and awkward, but as Stone Age men slowly developed skill, their tools grew finer and were more carefully chipped. The chipping and scraping tools left by the Cro-Magnons were smaller and better made than those of the Neanderthals.

Man Became a Hunter

Perhaps one reason why Old Stone Age men learned to make better weapons was because they had to make them or starve to death. During the long dry spells, men could not find enough of the food they had been accustomed to eating, and they had to change their diet. They began to hunt and kill small animals to eat. Then, little by little, driven by the pangs of hunger, men learned to kill even large beasts with their chipped stone weapons. They could not carry the heavy bodies of some of the animals, so the hunters ate the meat on the spot, tearing the raw flesh from the bones with their crude scraping tools. Or they learned to hack off chunks with their stone choppers and carried the meat to caves where they could feast in peace.

The bones of bears, wolves, the rhinoceros, the elephant, and the bison are among those found with the remains of Old Stone Age people. Instead of being only a *gatherer* of food, man had become a *hunter* also. When he became a hunter, man added meat to the kinds of food he could have to eat.



From the blackened soil they found in the Pekin caves, scientists know that as long ago as the days of Pekin Man, Old Stone Age men used fire and probably knew how to make it. No doubt men discovered the use of fire quite by accident. Although they did not at first know how to make this magic, fire, they liked what it did and began to use it. Perhaps they carried away burning embers from a forest fire to make their own fires. With it, they cooked their meat. They discovered that a piece of wood placed in the flames hardened so that it could be scraped down to a strong, sharp point for a good spear. Fire was of use to them in still another way. Animals were afraid of it and did not come near the blaze. Fire was a new tool that protected them from the beasts, cooked their meat, and hardened wooden weapons. Man had put something else he found in nature to work for him.

Fire became so important to primitive people that they had to learn to make fire for themselves. They noticed that when they struck pieces of flint together, the flint grew very hot. A spark may have flown off and started a tiny flame in the dry grass. By feeding this flame, these people discovered that they could build a good fire. Primitive tribes today still make fire without matches. It was such a long, hard job to make a fire that prehistoric men guarded their fires carefully. In fact, they began to worship fire and thought some god controlled it. This was because a flame seemed to be a wonderful miracle to them.



Making a fire was a long, hard job.

Men Learned to Talk

It was because man's mouth was shaped so that he was able to make different sounds, that he learned to signal with his voice. At first his language was probably nothing more than shouts or screams which he uttered while he pointed wildly with his hands at approaching danger. Then he learned to have certain sounds mean definite things. One kind of yell warned the band to run for their lives. Another sound was a call of joy because he had come upon a good patch of berries. Man did not begin to talk all of a sudden. It took prehistoric people hundreds of thousands of years to learn to make sounds into words, and thousands of years more to put the words together into sentences. Probably the language of Java and Pekin men consisted mostly of grunts and signs. Because of the shape of Neanderthal men's jaws, scientists think that by the time of the Neanderthals, men had developed more skill in talking with each other.

The simple speech of the early people made it possible for them to give directions to the group. They were able to share their ideas with each other. Living was safer and pleasanter when people began to talk.

OLD STONE AGE MEN IN EUROPE

By the time men had wandered into Europe, they had taken long steps forward in ways of living. They had developed simple language, crude tools and weapons, and they used fire to cook their meat. The climate in Europe was very different then from what it is today. It was a period between glaciers, when it grew very warm. There were no summers and winters. It was warm all the year round. Tropical trees and plants covered the land, and tropical beasts roamed through the forests. Bones of animals that live only in very warm climates have been found buried along rivers in England, Belgium, and France. Men shared the continent with the giant hippopotamus, the rhinoc-



eros, and the saber-toothed tiger. Food was to be had only if one were smart enough to catch it.

Then something happened that made people change again. The weather changed slowly from warm to cold. The glaciers moved down over northern Europe and covered it with ice. Gradually, as the trees died, animals perished or moved south to a warmer climate. Even though men moved south to escape the cold, the icy winds from the north chilled their bodies. As the forests in southern Europe thinned out, food became very scarce. People were cold, hungry, and miserable. They could no longer camp out on river banks in the open. They must find new ways of living or die.

What actually happened to people in Europe during the hundreds of thousands of years when the glaciers made life difficult, we do not know, since few remains have been found. We do know, however, that at the coming of the fourth glacier, our Neanderthal ancestors managed to survive the cold.

Cave Men

Life must have been very unpleasant for Neanderthal men. The land was bare and bleak. The red deer, the mammoth, and the woolly-coated rhinoceros who lived in Europe at this time were just as hungry as man himself, and they were growing scarce. Most of the time people were hungry, and many died of starvation and cold. They did not know how to make houses to shelter them, so they drove the animals from their caves and moved into them to get out of the cold. Once again human beings had found something in nature to help them out of a difficult situation. Scientists think that the Neanderthals were the first men that can be called cave men. They built fires in the caves to keep warm, and they wrapped themselves in the skins of animals.

While the hunters wandered far and wide for food, the women stayed in the cave, watching the fire. Men who were

especially skillful at working flint stayed behind to make tools and implements. The children gathered what berries, bugs, or eggs they could find. The women and children speared fish in the streams and built snares to trap small animals and birds.

Often the hunters were gone for days tracking animals. When they returned with fresh meat, they roasted it and ate it greedily. Primitive men had no manners. They were as savage as wolves and thought only of easing the hunger pains in their stomachs. If the hunt were good, there was more meat than they could eat at once, and often the meat had to be kept for weeks. If it decayed, they ate it just the same and liked it.

The cave was an evil-smelling place, with rotten meat and dead fish stored at the back, and piles of bones heaped about. Many people got rheumatism from the damp, cold floors of the caves. Their bones and joints ached and crippled them. If a person lived to be forty, he was very old. The short lives of the

Can you find any "comforts" in this cave man's home? How did the family live?



earliest people were filled mostly with aches, pains, and fears.

In order to survive in his troubled world, Neanderthal Man had to have flint. Flint is found in beds of chalk. Sometimes the men had to go on long, dangerous journeys to find fresh supplies of flint which they dug out of the chalk. Man became more careful in using flint. Instead of using a piece to make just one tool, he used the flakes he chipped out to make others. When he learned to make *several implements out of one piece of stone*, he had taken another step forward.

It may have been during their traveling for the precious flint that men began to barter. Part way to the mines perhaps they met men of other tribes returning with large quantities of flint and exchanged some animal skins or weapons for pieces of the stone. This saved the men the long, hard trip to the chalk beds. After the trading, they carried the heavy stone back to their caves, to be made into tools by the flint workers of their tribe.



The fact that Neanderthal men buried some of their dead showed that they had some belief in life after death, which they hoped would be pleasanter than this life. They buried implements with the dead to be used in the hereafter. Their primitive religion was one of fear and worship of the forces of nature.

For thousands of years Neanderthal men lived in Europe. Somewhere between 50,000 and 25,000 years ago, as the fourth and last glacier melted away and Europe settled down to much the same climate as it has today, the Cro-Magnons came to the continent. With their greater skill and improved weapons, it appears that they may have killed off the savage Neanderthals and taken their caves and flint supplies to use for themselves. The new men were better fitted to survive, so they lived on, while the hairy Neanderthal men died.

Mighty Hunters

Cro-Magnon men lived for the most part in the open, only using the caves for shelters. They were great hunters. They

hunted the mammoth, the bison, the reindeer, and the wild horse, which they particularly liked to eat. Food was more plentiful. Life was much easier and pleasanter for them than it had been for earlier man.

The Cro-Magnon hunters used many parts of the animals they killed. They had learned to use their stone tools to make needles out of the ivory tusks of the mammoth. With the bone needles, the women could sew the animal skins together to make clothes. They used the sinews of the animals for thread. The clever workers made other useful implements out of bone. When man used his stone tools *to make still more tools of other*

materials, he had taken another step forward in his long march to civilization.

A Little Spare Time

Because the Cro-Magnons had the spear and other improved tools to help them, not all the members of the tribe had to spend their time hunting for food. Some of them had a little time left over to learn things that earlier men had not had time to learn. They carved little figures of ivory and bone. They made crude lamps that burned animal fats to light their

dark homes. They painted pictures on the walls of their caves.

The Cro-Magnons knew how to make a crude paint that has lasted all these years on the rocky walls of their caves. Red, yellow, white, black, and brown were the colors they used. Their cave drawings not only tell us that they were fair artists, but they tell us of the animals that lived at that time.

Very gradually as the climate of Europe changed the cave



The Cro-Magnons left pictures for us on the walls of their caves.

bear, the mammoth, the bison, and the cave lion disappeared. The reindeer came into Europe in such great numbers that they were the chief source of food for the hunting peoples. People of that period depended on the reindeer so much that they are often called Reindeer men. Then, as the last glacier melted, the reindeer, who liked the cold weather, moved north to their present home. The mighty hunting people of Europe slowly disappeared like the animals they chased. They were the last of the Old Stone Age men in Europe. New groups of people moved in from the south, about twelve or fourteen thousand years ago, and replaced the hunters. At last the Old Stone Age ended and the New Stone Age began, less than a minute ago on the giant clock that measures time in minutes, 16,000 years long.

THINGS TO DO

I. QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS. In class discussion answer these questions about "Life in the Old Stone Age."

1. How did it happen that Old Stone Age people slowly became ground dwellers?
2. Why did primitive people live in groups?
3. How did the people of the Old Stone Age make their tools?
4. Why did men become mighty hunters?
5. How did fire help early men?
6. Why were people better off when they learned to talk?
7. How do we know that Europe had a tropical climate in a period between glaciers?
8. What was life like for Neanderthal people in Europe?
9. How were the ways of living of Cro-Magnon people better than those of the Neanderthals?

II. HISTORY DEFINITIONS AND NEW WORDS. In your notebook and in the Class Book write good definitions for these expressions.

<i>tree dwellers</i>	<i>gatherers of food</i>	<i>cave men barter</i>
<i>ground dwellers</i>	<i>hunters of food</i>	<i>primitive artists</i>
<i>flint</i>	<i>implements</i>	<i>utensils</i>

III. FOOD IN THE OLD STONE AGE. Divide a sheet of paper into two columns.

Gatherers of Food	Hunters of Food
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In the column headed *Gatherers of Food* list the foods that made up the diet of earliest men. Place a star beside the foods that you enjoy eating today. In the column headed *Hunters of Food* list the animals that Old Stone Age people killed to eat. Place a star beside the meats you have eaten. The books listed on page 56 will help you make a complete menu. Put your menu in your notebook. Be sure to post one on the bulletin board.

IV. THE MAIN IDEAS. On a sheet of paper copy the main headings of “Life in the Old Stone Age.” Write a few sentences in your own words that tell the main ideas of each section. Put your completed work in your notebook.

V. A CLASS MUSEUM. Appoint a committee to arrange an Old Stone Age Museum for your classroom. In the museum place small models made by you and your classmates, or collections that you have found. Label all of the things in the museum carefully. When visitors come to your rooms, a member of the committee should explain to them the articles in the museum.

In the museum there should be models of such things as: a piece of flint (possibly you can find a real piece of flint), a chipped stone chopper, a chipped stone scraper, a stone knife, a spear head tied to a pole, a cave home, and an animal trap. The books listed on page 57 and the encyclopedias will be helpful.

VI. LET’S ACT IT OUT. Divide your class into three groups. Each group will decide on the subject for a play about a period in the Old Stone Age. Elect a chairman for each group. Plan together very carefully just what you are to say and do. Divide the responsibility for writing the scenes of each act among the members of each group.

Give out the parts and have a short rehearsal. You may memorize the parts or read them, as your teacher directs. The chairman will introduce each play, giving the name, the time, the place, and the characters. Show all you can about the life and doings of the Old Stone Age people you represent.

VII. A PICTURE CHART. Make a picture chart that shows how some of our ways of living had their beginnings long, long ago in the Old Stone Age. Divide a sheet of paper like this.

Then	Now
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In the *Then* column put pictures of primitive people doing the things that laid the foundation for us. One picture in the *Then* column might be of primitive people making fire. Opposite it in the *Now* column could be the picture of a modern kitchen stove or of an oil burner. Put a *Then and Now* chart in your Class Book and on the bulletin board.

- VIII. A CARTOON. Some of you may want to draw cartoons to show how life changed for man as he learned to put nature to work for him. Have a committee select the cartoons that show different ways Old Stone Age people used nature's gifts. If the cartoons are posted in historical order, they will tell the story of the slow progress made in Old Stone Age times.
- IX. A POSTER. Select a committee of your classmates to make a large poster showing a flight of steps. On each step print one of the contributions that Old Stone Age people made to our ways of living.
- X. USING THEIR WITS. Draw a row of heads on a sheet of paper. They might look something like those on page 5. Draw large balloons coming from the top of the heads. In the balloons list the thoughts Old Stone Age people had about ways to protect themselves. Put the ideas in the historical order that they thought of them.
- XI. WHAT'S MY NAME? Divide your class into two groups. The groups may stand on opposite sides of the room. Each of you pretend to be some one or something mentioned in Chapter 1 or 2. The first person in Group I describes himself and the first person in Group II has the first chance to give the correct answer. If he fails, someone in Group I has the chance to answer it. Appoint a scorekeeper. Every correct answer counts one point for a side. An incorrect answer counts one point against a side. The side with the highest score wins.



Chapter 3

Life in the New Stone Age

Better ways of living did not come about in a year or two. The new ideas developed so slowly that probably generations of our ancestors lived and died without knowing that they had taken important steps forward. Today we divide prehistoric times into the Old Stone Age and the New Stone Age, because that is an easy way to remember *what* primitive men accomplished, and about *when* they did so.

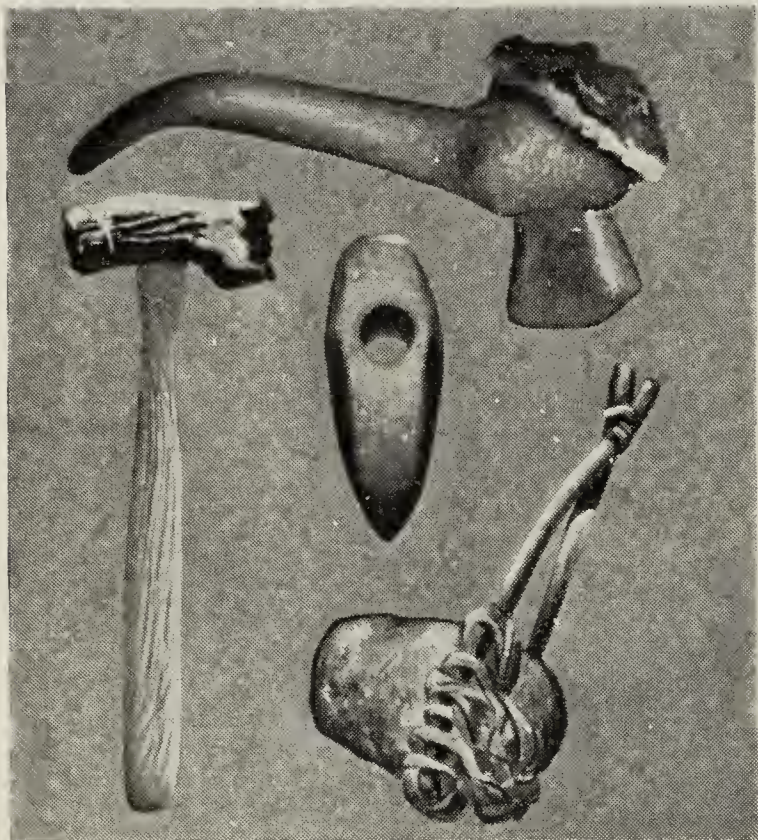
NEW STONE AGE MEN IN EUROPE

There are no exact dates for the beginning or the end of the New Stone Age in Europe or in any part of the world. Apparently groups of men from Africa or Asia who had learned better ways of living wandered into Europe about 14,000 years ago. They settled down in certain spots to live. We do not have to guess so much about how they lived as we do about Old Stone Age people. In the remains of their villages scattered throughout Europe, New Stone Age men left many samples of their living.

Early Settlements in Denmark

The oldest remains of the New Stone Age men in Europe

are found on the shores of Denmark. Great heaps of shells and bones were thrown there by New Stone Age men about 12,000 years ago. In these huge shell and bone heaps scholars have discovered *stone axes made by a new process called polishing or grinding*.



New Stone Age tools were a big advance over chipped stones.

The edges of these axes were sharper and stronger than those made by chipping. The stone workers of the New Stone Age had learned to bore holes in the stones and tie on handles of wood. They could swing this mighty tool with more power than they could swing the axe without a handle. So by adding a handle to the first axe, man made his arm almost twice as long as nature had made it, and the hatchet increased man's strength. Saws, chisels, and other sharp utensils of polished stone were found among the bones and shells. These tools

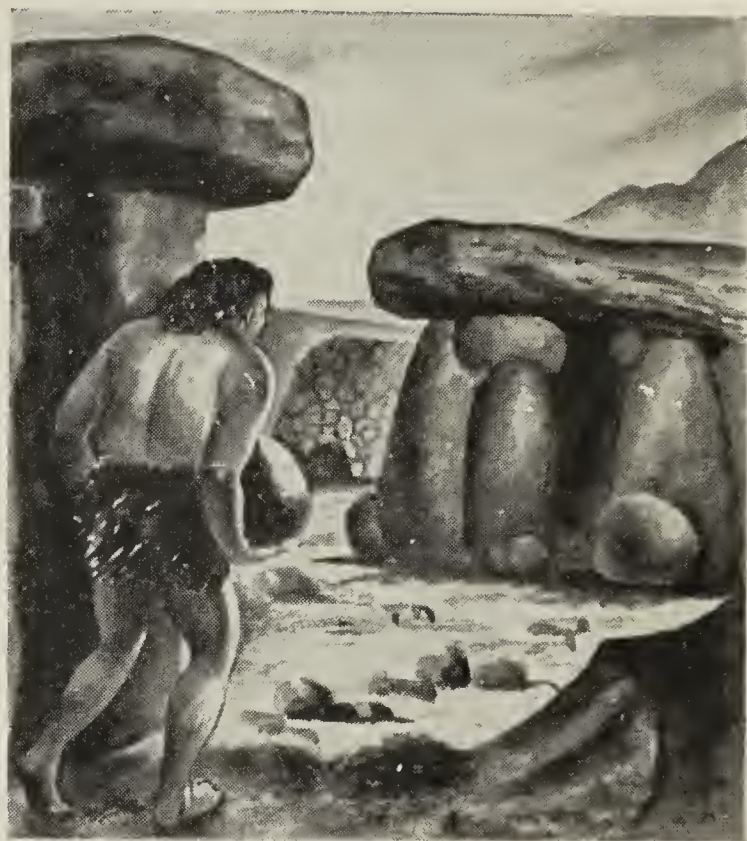
show that New Stone Age men knew how to make improved tools and to use them for new purposes.

New Stone Age people did not have to depend on a home provided by nature. With their new tools they learned to build their own. Their houses were crude huts, built from reeds and plastered with mud, but they could build them where they wanted them. While their huts were not very pleasant, they were more comfortable than damp caves. New Stone Age men had not learned to make chimneys, so the fire was always near the door, where some of the smoke could get out. The people squatted near the hot fire, their eyes smarting with smoke.

After they devoured their meals of meat or fish, they threw the bones and shells on the floor or by the doorstep. Occasion-

ally, New Stone Age men in Denmark apparently cleaned house and dumped their garbage in the great shell heaps near their villages. The odor from these piles was not sweet and it must have attracted many insects and wild animals.

Bones of jackals, or wild dogs, have been dug out of the shell remains. Probably the hungry jackals crept close to the shell heaps and grabbed a bone to gnaw. Perhaps the villagers threw the wild dogs a bite to eat now and then. The little jackal puppies may have wandered into the village, where they made friends with the boys and girls. Very, very slowly, the wild dogs grew tame. They lost their fear of men and started to follow them. Men found the dogs good companions on the long hunt. Their barks warned the villagers of enemies. When animals are tamed, we say they are *domesticated*. New Stone Age men domesticated the first animals.



Huts were more comfortable than caves.

Bits of broken clay pots found in the shell heaps show that the New Stone Age people had learned to make pottery. Probably they noticed that the mud walls of their huts hardened from the heat of the fire. Some clever inventor thought of shaping clay and putting it in the fire to harden. These clay jars were used for storing food and carrying water. The invention of pottery was another important step ahead for men.

In time, New Stone Age men learned to build dugouts from tree trunks to carry them on the water. These were the first boats. You can see how their improved tools helped the builders cut the tree and dig out the center. They probably built a fire

in the heavy trunk and burned away part of the wood. The rest they dug out with their sharp stone scrapers.

The Lake Dwellers

The winter of 1854 was a very dry one in Switzerland. As happens in dry weather, the waters of the lakes grew lower and lower. Some strange-looking logs were noticed sticking out of the water of one of the lakes. The logs were the remains of a village that had been built over the lake about 6,000 years ago. Think what a find this was for the scientists! These traces of our ancestors had been there all along, only they were buried under water where no one had noticed them. Later, the remains of villages were discovered in lakes in other parts of Europe.

No doubt the lake dwellers built their villages over water to protect themselves from other tribes of men who tried to rob

The home of a lake dweller. Do you see some things that we still use today?



or kill them. It may have been, too, that men found it cleaner, as well as safer, to live over water. They could dispose of all their garbage and rubbish by dropping it in the lake.

These lake villages were built by pounding the trunks of trees into the bottom of the lake. The ends of these logs were sharpened into points with fine stone tools before they were driven into the mud. Then wooden platforms were built on the poles. On the platforms the lake dwellers built houses of wood in which they had crude furniture. Out of wood they also carved bowls and spoons, and pottery for storing food.

Bits of cloth were found in the lakes, showing that the lake dwellers had learned to twist flax fibers into thread and to weave it into a kind of cloth. Nets to catch fish were woven from flax. In the floors of the lake houses, trap doors opened into the waters of the lake. The men fished through these holes with bone hooks. Arrowheads found among the ruins tell us that the lake dwellers had invented a new weapon, the bow and arrow. Bones of the dog, ox, goat, and sheep were found buried in the lakes. Life must have been pleasanter and easier for the lake dwellers than it had been for earlier men.



ACHIEVEMENTS OF NEW STONE AGE MEN

Animals Were Domesticated

The lake dwellers not only had the dog as a helper and friend, but they had tamed wild cattle, goats, and sheep. Probably they had not learned to use milk for food, but they had a good supply of meat on hand in their own back yards. Scientists think that some of the dogs, sheep, and cattle lived in the lake villages along with the people. Probably the children took the animals out to graze on the hillsides near the lakes during the day. At night they drove them back to the village, where they would not be eaten by wild beasts. So some of these children of our earliest ancestors were probably the first shepherds.

Men Learned to Farm

It may have been before they domesticated animals, or before they wandered into Europe, that New Stone Age men took the first step in learning to farm. For thousands of years men had been gathering seeds and eating them, but no one knew that plants would grow from the tiny kernels. Finally some smart person figured out that if the seeds were put in the ground, they would sprout. If men planted the seeds in a certain spot, they would know where to find them when they were ripe and would no longer have to search far and wide for the precious kernels. New Stone Age farmers tamed the wild plants and grew them where they wanted them. Once again men used their wits to help fill their stomachs and save them work.



Like every other idea, the idea of farming grew very slowly. For a long time, men just scratched the seeds into the ground and left them to grow while the tribe wandered far away hunting. Then they learned to come back at a certain season to harvest the crop. Gradually, they discovered that if they ploughed the ground and tended the plants, they had a better harvest. At first they used a sharp stick to scratch the ground for sowing the seeds. Much later, they invented the plough with two handles. Such ploughs have been found with a deer horn tied on the end to turn the soil. After they tamed the ox, men trained him to pull the ploughs.

The lake dwellers grew fields of wheat, millet, and flax on the land near the villages. After the harvest, they stored the precious seeds in pottery jars until they wanted to use them. They learned to grind the grain between stones into a kind of flour. Then the flour was moistened and made into little flat loaves of bread, which they baked on hot stones or in crude ovens.

Old Stone Age men were *gatherers of food*. Later they were *hunters* and *fishermen*. The New Stone Age men were *herdsmen* and *farmers*. Instead of hunting, some of them raised

animals and plants to eat. Then they became *producers* of food instead of using only what they found growing wild.

Men Lived in Settled Homes

When people wandered far and wide on their hunting trips, they did not have a settled home in one place. As they learned to tame animals and plant seeds to produce their food, some of the men began to stay near their farms to tend and protect them. They needed to build houses where they could live. Then groups of people settled down in a spot and made their homes in villages. When they did not wander about, people had more time to learn better ways of living.

Not all of the men were farmers. Some became herdsman, who watched over the sheep and goats and drove them around to find fresh pastures in the hills. Their friend, the dog, helped the shepherds and kept them company.

Certain tribes developed into robber bands. The bandits did not bother to produce their own food but made war on the villagers to steal their goods. The lake dwellers were always on guard against the robbers. They built draw bridges from their villages to the shore. These bridges were pulled up at night so the gangsters could not enter the villages easily.

Because the villagers had to guard their belongings, some of them took on the job of protecting the tribe as warriors. The strongest men became the chiefs who led the others in war. They were honored and obeyed by the people, who needed their help and protection. The bow and arrow was a help to the warriors. Now they could kill their enemies from a distance. When New Stone Age men invented the bow and arrow, they increased the length and strength of their arms again.

Men Learned to Co-operate

In the Old Stone Age, when men were hunters and food was hard to get, people traveled in very small groups. They could

not find enough meat to feed many mouths. As they learned to protect themselves and found new ways to get food, they lived longer. The tribes grew larger. In the New Stone Age there were many people living on the earth in different spots. They began to stay together in larger groups in the villages.

New Stone Age people learned to work together for the good of the whole group. There were new kinds of work to be done. At first the women did most of the farming. When they could no longer do it alone, some of the men gave up their hunting and stayed at home to help in the fields. The women and children wove cloth out of flax. They ground the grain. They learned new ways to cook food. Baskets, pottery, and bone implements were made by busy fingers. Work was divided among members of the group. Some did the mining of flint for the stone workers to make into tools. Others became skillful woodworkers, bone carvers, or builders. By dividing the work, they

How many activities can you see in this picture of a New Stone Age family?



got along better. They had more to eat, more to wear, and more tools to use.

The New Stone Age men built stone tombs in which to bury their chieftains. It took the work of many muscles to lift the big slabs of stone into place. Because men learned to work together, they had time for play together. There were feast days when races and games were held. The members of the tribes gathered for their festivals at the tombs of their leaders. Many of these monuments to New Stone Age men have been found.

Learning to divide the work so each person did his share, and working together for the welfare of everyone was another great step ahead for man. Today we know that good ways of living are not possible in our home, in our school, in our nation, or in our world unless we co-operate with each other. When New Stone Age men learned to co-operate in large groups, they were near to civilized times.

What things of usefulness and beauty can you find? Which man is the chief?





At first men just lived from day to day. They ate what they found when they found it and did not think much about tomorrow. In the New Stone Age, men began to save food in times of plenty. Then they would be sure to have something to eat if the crops failed. They began to think and plan for the future. They planned how to be ready when invading tribes attacked them. The best planners gained power over the others and became the leaders of the tribe. They made rules for the group to obey, and simple government started under the strong chiefs.

RELIGION OF NEW STONE AGE MEN

For thousands of years early men buried the bodies of their mighty chiefs. They placed articles of daily use in the graves with them. Many years passed before the common people had a decent burial, but the graves of the chiefs show that New Stone Age men thought of a life after death and planned for that, as they did for their life on earth.



New Stone Age men thought there were many gods and goddesses who controlled their lives. They believed the gods made the crops grow, the rains come, or the sun shine. Different tribes called the gods by different names. They made sacrifices to the gods so they would be kind to men. Often they killed one of the best young members of the tribe because they thought it would please the gods. Human sacrifices were made at the time men sowed their crops, to please the gods and so get a good harvest.

Certain men spent all their time trying to please the gods. These men became the priests and witch doctors. They told the people what they must and must not do, if the gods were to favor them. Prehistoric men had many rules and laws telling them what not to do. They were afraid of the anger of their gods, so they obeyed these rules carefully. Prehistoric men be-

lieved in magic and wore charms to keep away danger. The people gave the medicine men a share of the crops to pay for protection from the gods. Though their magic seems strange to us today, the religion of New Stone Age men shows that they were thinking about life and death. They were searching for an answer to the mysteries around them. Men realized there was some power stronger than themselves.

RACES AND LANGUAGES OF MEN

As men settled on the earth in different places, they changed in different ways. They were often separated from other groups by mountains or water. Very slowly, most of the members of a certain group developed the same color of hair or skin. This was caused partly by the climate where they lived, by the foods they ate, and by their ways of living. Thus it came about that in southern Europe most of the people living around the Mediterranean Sea had white skin, dark eyes, and black hair. Those living in northern Europe had light hair, white skin, and blue eyes.



In southern and central Africa most of the tribes had black skin and black curly hair. In Asia most of the people were brown or yellow, with high cheek bones and straight black hair. The Indians who settled in North and South America probably came from Asia. The American Indians have reddish-brown skin, straight black hair, and high cheek bones like the Asiatics.

The Races of Men

In our world today we speak of the four races of men: brown, yellow, black, and white. We must remember that there are many other groups who are a mixture of races. When tribes conquered each other, they often settled down to live with the people they had conquered. They married one another, and their children were of mixed race.

Different Languages

When groups were shut off from other people for long periods of time, they learned to call things by different names. All the members of a tribe could understand each other, but they might not know what other tribes were talking about because the language was unlike theirs. Many languages developed in different parts of the world. Not all people of the same race spoke the same language. Today, you know that people in other parts of the world do not speak our language.

You remember that New Stone Age men probably came to Europe from Africa or Asia. There were groups of New Stone Age men who stayed in Africa and Asia and settled down there. The tribes in Europe continued to live as New Stone Age men for thousands of years. They had learned much. But they could not write. They could not build ships. They did not know how to use metals. Some of the groups of New Stone Age men in other parts of the world, however, learned to do these things. They became civilized and grew into powerful nations.

It was the men of the New Stone Age who made civilized ways of living possible. They took the long, difficult steps ahead that led to civilized times.

CONTRIBUTIONS OF NEW STONE AGE MEN

- | | |
|--|---|
| 1. They domesticated animals. | 8. They built the first crude houses. |
| 2. They began farming. | 9. They made dugouts. |
| 3. They made pottery. | 10. They learned to co-operate and plan. |
| 4. They learned to weave. | 11. They had a simple government. |
| 5. They learned to cook. | 12. They settled down to live in one place. |
| 6. They made better tools of polished stone. | |
| 7. They invented the bow and arrow. | |

THINGS TO DO

I. QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS. As you study "Life in the New Stone Age," be able to answer these questions.

1. About when did the New Stone Age begin in Europe?
2. What do we know about the New Stone Age people who lived on the shores of Denmark?
3. What kind of tools did the people of the New Stone Age make? In what kind of homes did they live?
4. How did the dog probably become tame and a friend of man?
5. How do you think the earliest pottery was made? The earliest boat?
6. What do the lake dwellings of Switzerland show about the slow improvement of ways of living in the New Stone Age?
7. How did the people of the New Stone Age slowly become farmers?
8. In what ways did the people in the villages of the New Stone Age co-operate? How did co-operation improve their ways of living?
9. What ideas about religion did the people of the New Stone Age have?
10. How does it happen that we have four main races of people today?
11. Why do the people of the world speak so many different languages?
12. What are the most important contributions that people of the New Stone Age made to our ways of living?
13. What were some of the things that New Stone Age men had not learned to do?

II. HISTORY DEFINITIONS AND NEW WORDS. Write definitions for these words and expressions in your notebook.

<i>shell heaps</i>	<i>herdsmen</i>	<i>producers of food</i>
<i>lake dwellers</i>	<i>races of men</i>	<i>nature</i>
<i>domesticate</i>	<i>generations</i>	<i>farmers</i>

III. NEW KINDS OF WORK. As people learned better ways of living in the New Stone Age, there were many new kinds of work to be done. After your study of “Life in the New Stone Age” make a list of the work that was done by the children. If you do that same kind of work today, put a check beside it. Put your list in your notebook and have a committee make one for your Class Book.

IV. NEWS HEADLINES OF THE NEW STONE AGE. Newspaper headlines say a great deal in a few words. Study the main headings in “Life in the New Stone Age.” Reread the section under each heading and then word your headings very carefully. Get all the important ideas in each section in a few headlines. Have the class vote on the best headlines to go in the Class Book.

V. A CHART OF CHANGES. Make a chart showing the changes in people and their ways of living from the time of Java men to the days of the New Stone Age. Put your chart in your notebook and place one on the bulletin board.

Changes in the Bodies of Men	Changes in Ways of Living in the New Stone Age
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VI. A NEW STONE AGE MENU. Make a list of the new foods that were added to the menu of the people of the

New Stone Age. Compare this menu with the one you made for the Old Stone Age.

VII. THE LENGTH AND STRENGTH OF MAN'S ARM. Write a paragraph that explains how man increased the length and strength of his arm by using his wits. Before you write the paragraph it will help you to look over carefully Chapters 2 and 3 and make a list of the weapons man used. Keep the list in historical order. When you have all the steps in the development of weapons of the Stone Age, write your paragraph. Read your explanations to the class. Select the best one to put in the Class Book.

VIII. ANOTHER NAME. Two authors have written a book about the achievements of primitive people. The title of this book is *How Man Became a Giant*. Why do you think they called it that? Explain why to the class. Perhaps you will want to read this book and give an oral report on it to your classmates.

IX. FOR YOUR MUSEUM. For your museum make a model of a lake village. Add to your museum the following things, or make models of them: a bow and arrow, an arrowhead, an early fish hook, a clay pot, a sample of weaving, a dugout.

X. THEN AND NOW—A PICTURE CHART. Divide a piece of paper into three columns like this:

Old Stone Age		New Stone Age		Today
---------------	--	---------------	--	-------

In each column draw or paste a picture that shows the following ways of living in each period. In the column headed *Today* be sure to put pictures of the way you

live now. A Home, Protection from Enemies, Getting Clothes, Getting Meat, Cooking Food, Using Spare Time.

- XI. A PARADE OF INVENTORS. Make believe you are the inventor of one of the following articles. Prepare a talk to give to the class on how you happened to think of your new idea, how you worked it out, and how it helped your fellowmen.

Stone Grinder	Pottery Maker
Hatchet Maker	Carpenter
Bow and Arrow Maker	Boat Builder
Weaver	

- XII. A NEW STONE AGE FOSTER. On a large sheet of paper draw a picture of a flight of steps. On each step print one of the important steps toward civilization taken by our New Stone Age ancestors. Perhaps you will draw pictures of the different workers on each step. Place this chart on your bulletin board beside the poster showing the contributions of the people of the Old Stone Age.



Chapter 4

Where and When in History

As you learned about Stone Age men, you used the names “Asia,” “Africa,” “Europe,” “Belgium,” “Java,” “England,” “Switzerland,” and “China.” You know these names and the names of many other parts of the earth from your study of maps and geography. Of course the early people who lived in these places did not call them by the names we use today. They knew nothing about the size and shape of the world. In fact they probably did not know that there were many places on the earth outside the spots where they lived.

MAPS

It was long after people became civilized in many parts of the world that they named the continents, the oceans, the seas, and the thousands of places we see on the maps of today. As men found out more and more about the world, they learned to make charts and maps of it. Maps show where places are located on the earth. They help people find their way from one place to another and show them in which direction to travel. Maps help people to understand the size and shape of the earth, too.

The first maps were crude. But as men learned more about



The WORLD



the earth, they learned to make better and better maps. Even today map makers are learning to improve the maps we use.

Our World



Today we know that our world is a large round ball, or globe. On this globe, which is whirling in space, are six large masses of land called continents. Oceans cover much of the world. The Atlantic Ocean and the Pacific Ocean are the two largest oceans of the world. In the oceans and seas are thousands of islands. On the continents and islands of the world are valleys, plains, and mountains. On the continents and islands there are many lakes and rivers.

The continent of North America is in the Western Hemisphere, or western half, of the globe. The continent of South America is also in the Western Hemisphere. East of the Americas stretches the Atlantic Ocean. To the west is the broad Pacific Ocean. To the north is the Arctic Ocean, which reaches to the northern shores of Asia and Europe.

Asia, in the Eastern Hemisphere, is the largest continent. More people live in Asia than in any other part of the globe. In fact, half of all the people in the world live on the continent of Asia. Asia is separated from the Americas by the wide Pacific Ocean. South of Asia is the Indian Ocean.

Europe, in the Eastern Hemisphere, is a small continent, but on it are about thirty different countries. Most of the people of North and South America are descended from Europeans who sailed west across the Atlantic Ocean to start new homes. As we study *Out of the Past*, we shall find that much of our history took place on the continent of Europe.

Africa is another large continent in the Eastern Hemisphere. To the west of Africa is the Atlantic Ocean and to the east the Indian Ocean. Australia, the smallest of the continents, has fewer people living on it than any other. Its east coast is washed

by the Pacific, while to the west and south stretches the Indian Ocean.

Besides different masses of land, the world also has different kinds of climate. When it became too cold or too dry, the earliest people either moved to better places or died. Our earth is now very crowded with people compared with pre-historic times. Most of them live in parts of the world where there is enough warmth and water and good soil to grow their foods.

Importance of Warm River Valleys

As you continue the story of how men became civilized, you will find that the way they learned to live depended somewhat on the place where they lived. It was easier to live in some spots than it was in others. In the warm parts of the earth near rivers, the soil was rich and there was a supply of water. Certain men found life much pleasanter there than in the cold, hilly sections on the earth.

The map on this page shows four of the great river valleys where people first became civilized. They are the Nile Valley in northeastern Africa, the Tigris-Euphrates Valley in southeastern Asia, the Indus River Valley in India, and the Yellow River Valley in China. New Stone Age men settled in these



warm river valleys. Here they slowly learned civilized ways of living.

In the next units you are going to follow the story of civilization in the valleys of the Nile and Tigris-Euphrates rivers. You will see how it spread from there to the islands of the Aegean Sea and around the shores of the Mediterranean. From there civilization spread to Greece, Italy, and farther north to western Europe.

Throughout this book, maps will help to tell you where the people of the earth lived and where they learned the ways of living we call civilized.

TIME LINES

In addition to knowing *where* the people of civilized times lived, it is very important to know *when* they developed their new ways of living. On page 2 is a time line. This time line shows that prehistoric times lasted for a long, long time. Men have lived in historic times only a very short while. From now on, there will be time lines in this book to help you to understand when the events of history took place.

Dates

Often we see the letters B.C. or A.D. after a date. B.C. stands for "before Christ." This shows that the event occurred a certain number of years before the birth of Christ. Sometimes we place the letters A.D. after the dates of events that happened after Christ was born. A.D. stands for the Latin words "anno Domini," and means "in the year of our Lord." When there are no letters after a date, we know that it stands for A.D.

After men learned to write and left written records of their doings, we say *historic*, or civilized, times began. Scholars who study the history of the peoples who lived around the Mediterranean Sea and in Europe divide civilized times into three great periods. They call these long periods Ancient Times, the Middle



Ages, and Modern Times. There is really no exact date for the beginning or the ending of any of these periods of history. As a convenient way of thinking about these historic periods, however, we give them dates. We say that Ancient Times began about 5000 B.C., when the New Stone Age came to a close in the Valley of the Nile, and ended about 500 A.D. The Middle Ages lasted from about 500 A.D. to 1500 A.D. Modern Times began about 1500 A.D. and extend until now.



Calendars

The calendar helps us keep track of time by dividing it into days, weeks, months, and years. Historians think that the first people to develop a calendar were the Egyptians. They lived in the Nile Valley in Ancient Times. Other people of Ancient Times borrowed the Egyptian calendar and made changes in it. This calendar was the ancestor of the one we use today.

Different people of Ancient Times had different ways of recording the dates of their history. At one time the Egyptians named each year after the most important thing that happened during that year. Later they divided their history by the reigns of their rulers. The very first date that the Egyptians recorded is one we call 4236 B.C. Of course, they did not call it that.

The Greeks, another people of Ancient Times, started their calendar with the year we call 776 B.C., which was supposed to be the date of the first Olympic game. The Romans started their calendar from the year we call 753 B.C., which they said was the date of the founding of Rome. The ancient Hebrews reckoned time from the creation of the world as told in the Book of Genesis in the Bible. They placed this event at 3671 B.C.

Five or six centuries after Christ was born, the Christian Church began to date events forward and backward from the birth of Christ. The system of recording dates by the Christian calendar spread throughout Europe. From there, it spread later

to many other parts of the world where Europeans carried their ways of living.



It was at the time of the development of the Christian calendar that the custom started of using the letters B.C. and A.D. to record events. We say the first recorded date in Egyptian history is 4236 B.C. Since it is now almost 2,000 years since the birth of Christ, that first Egyptian date was recorded more than 6,000 years ago.

People who use the Christian calendar also divide time into periods of 100 years, or centuries. The years from 1 A.D. through 100 A.D. are the first century A.D. The years from 101 A.D. through 200 A.D. are the second century. We live in the twentieth century. The centuries before the birth of Christ are, of course, figured backward. From 1 B.C. through 100 B.C. is the first century B.C.

As you read the story of how men improved their ways of living, you will use many dates. In the next units you will study about life in Ancient Times. The time lines will help you remember the important dates. If you use the time lines constantly, you will find it easy to know just *when* the events you are studying occurred. Time lines will help you understand how long ago in the past things happened.

Maps and time lines are very useful and important tools that help us know *where* and *when* the happenings of historic times took place.

THINGS TO DO

I. QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS. During your study of "Where and When in History" answer these questions and any others your teacher may ask.

1. Why do we use maps?
2. What are the names of the six continents?
3. Which continent has the largest population? Which has the smallest?

4. What are the names of the oceans? Where are they located?
5. In what four river valleys did early civilization start?
6. What do the letters A.D. beside a date mean? B.C.?
7. Into what three periods do we usually divide historic times? What are the approximate dates of each period?
8. With what date did the ancient Egyptians begin their calendar? The Greeks? The Romans? The Hebrews?
9. From what event in history do we date our calendar?
10. What is a century? In what century are we living today?
11. Why are maps and time lines useful study tools?

II. HISTORY DEFINITIONS AND NEW WORDS. In your notebook write definitions for the following expressions:

<i>B.C.</i>	<i>A.D.</i>	<i>Ancient Times</i>	<i>Middle Ages</i>	<i>Modern Times</i>
<i>time lines</i>	<i>continent</i>	<i>globe</i>	<i>century</i>	

III. MAKE A MAP. On an outline map which your teacher gives you or which you draw, print the following names in their correct places. Color the oceans, seas, and rivers blue. Color each continent a different color. Be sure to put your map in your notebook. The best map should go on the bulletin board.

Atlantic Ocean	Africa
Pacific Ocean	Europe
Arctic Ocean	Australia
Indian Ocean	Nile River
Mediterranean Sea	Tigris-Euphrates Rivers
Aegean Sea	Indus River
North America	Yellow River
South America	Western Hemisphere
Asia	Eastern Hemisphere

- IV. A TIME CLOCK. On page 2 is a time line of historic times. Draw another picture of historic times by using the face of a time clock. Have a class discussion to decide how many years each minute on the clock will represent and just where you will place the dates 5000 B.C., 500 A.D., 1500 A.D., and Today. Color Ancient Times blue, the Middle Ages yellow, and Modern Times red. Appoint a committee to make a giant time clock of historic times for your classroom.
- V. MAP MAKERS. Divide your class into three groups. On a large sheet of wrapping paper each group will make a map of one of the three things listed below. Be sure your map is accurate and has a key to explain distances. 1. Your school room. 2. Your school grounds. 3. Your trip from home to school. After you have finished your maps, have a class discussion which might be called *Our Debt to the Map Makers*.
- VI. FOR YOUR BULLETIN BOARD. Bring in automobile maps to display on your bulletin board. Study the keys on these maps to see what the maps show. Try to find two or three maps of the same places, but with different dates of publication. If you study the maps carefully, you will see that the maps are somewhat different. Can you figure out why?

LET'S REVIEW

- I. COMPLETING THE RECORD. You have been keeping a record of your study about prehistoric times, and you now have some relics of your own work. Take out of your notebook all the papers you have completed. Arrange them neatly. It will be your own book about primitive times. Make a cover for your records and fasten all

your papers together. Make a table of contents. You will want to include some of the following activities in your notebook. Perhaps you can hang up your books for your classmates to enjoy.

- II. A MATCHING TEST. Copy the list of words in Column I on a sheet of paper. Hunt for the words in Column II which match the words in the first column and put the correct letters beside the words in Column I.

Column I	Column II
1. The Old Stone Age	<i>a.</i> having good ways of living
2. domesticate	<i>b.</i> a great sheet of ice
3. Modern Times	<i>c.</i> tame
4. glacier	<i>d.</i> Middle Ages
5. improve	<i>e.</i> a kind of stone
6. civilized	<i>f.</i> time from 1500 A.D. to now
7. Neanderthals	<i>g.</i> to make better
8. Java Man	<i>h.</i> a continent
9. primitive times	<i>i.</i> Eugene Dubois found him
10. flint	<i>j.</i> The first "cave men"
	<i>k.</i> prehistoric times
	<i>l.</i> the time of Java Man, Pekin Man, the Neanderthals, and the Cro-Magnons

- III. TELEGRAMS. Look over the main headings in the four chapters you have just studied. Decide what the most important ideas in the unit are. Write one telegram for each chapter that tells the one big idea of that chapter. You will have to think hard to do this because telegrams say a lot in a few words. After you have written your four telegrams, try writing one that tells the big idea of the whole unit.

- IV. A PICTURE BOOK. It will be interesting to have a committee make a picture book of homes through the ages. The first picture could be in the tree tops. Add the pictures of other homes as people learned how to make them.
- V. A COSTUME BOOK. As you study *Out of the Past* it will be fun to keep a costume book showing the way the people of each period of history dressed. Of course your first picture will be of an Old Stone Age man or woman, or perhaps of a boy or girl. The second picture will be of a New Stone Age person to show the changes. You will add pictures of each people you study. Then you will have a record of the changes in "styles" through the ages.
- VI. PICTURES TELL A STORY. Study all the pictures in your book so far that tell about Prehistoric Times. Make a list of all the things that you can tell from these pictures about the days before written history.
- VII. LET'S TALK IT OVER.
1. How did the knowledge of prehistoric men come to us?
 2. What do we mean by the Old Stone Age, the New Stone Age, and the Ice Age?
 3. Into what four periods do we divide the long story of man's life upon the earth? What dates do we give each period?
 4. By using his wits how did prehistoric man improve his ways of living?
 5. What kinds of work do men do today that people of the New Stone Age did?

VIII. LET'S READ. Arrange with your teacher for a time to tell stories from the library books you have been reading. These stories should be about Stone Age times. Here are a few books you will like.

The Bewitched Caverns by Leona Train Rienow, Charles Scribner's Sons

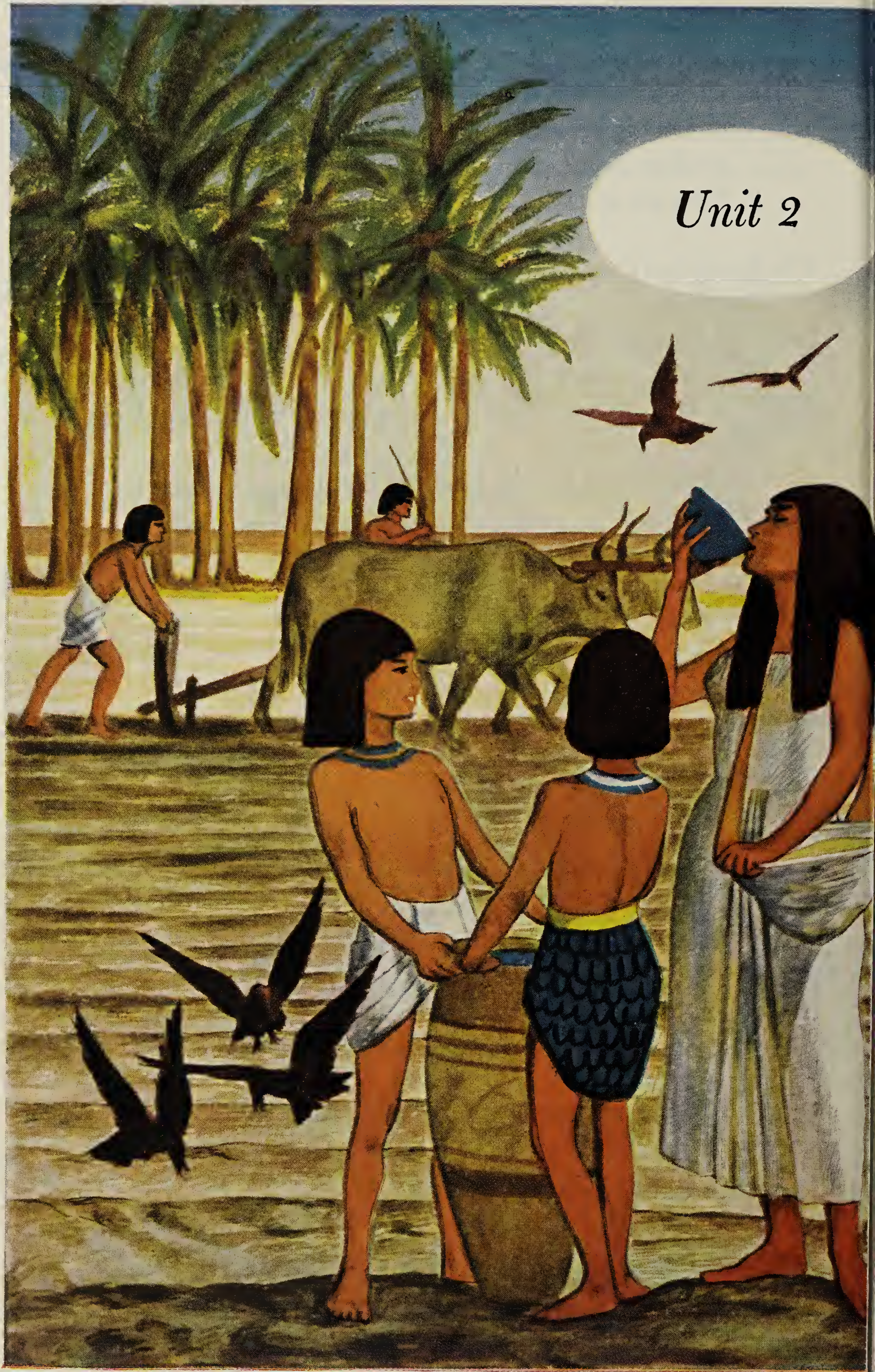
Dawn of Creation by J. Carroll Mansfield, Lothrop, Lee and Shepard Company

The First Men in the World by Anne Terry White, Random House

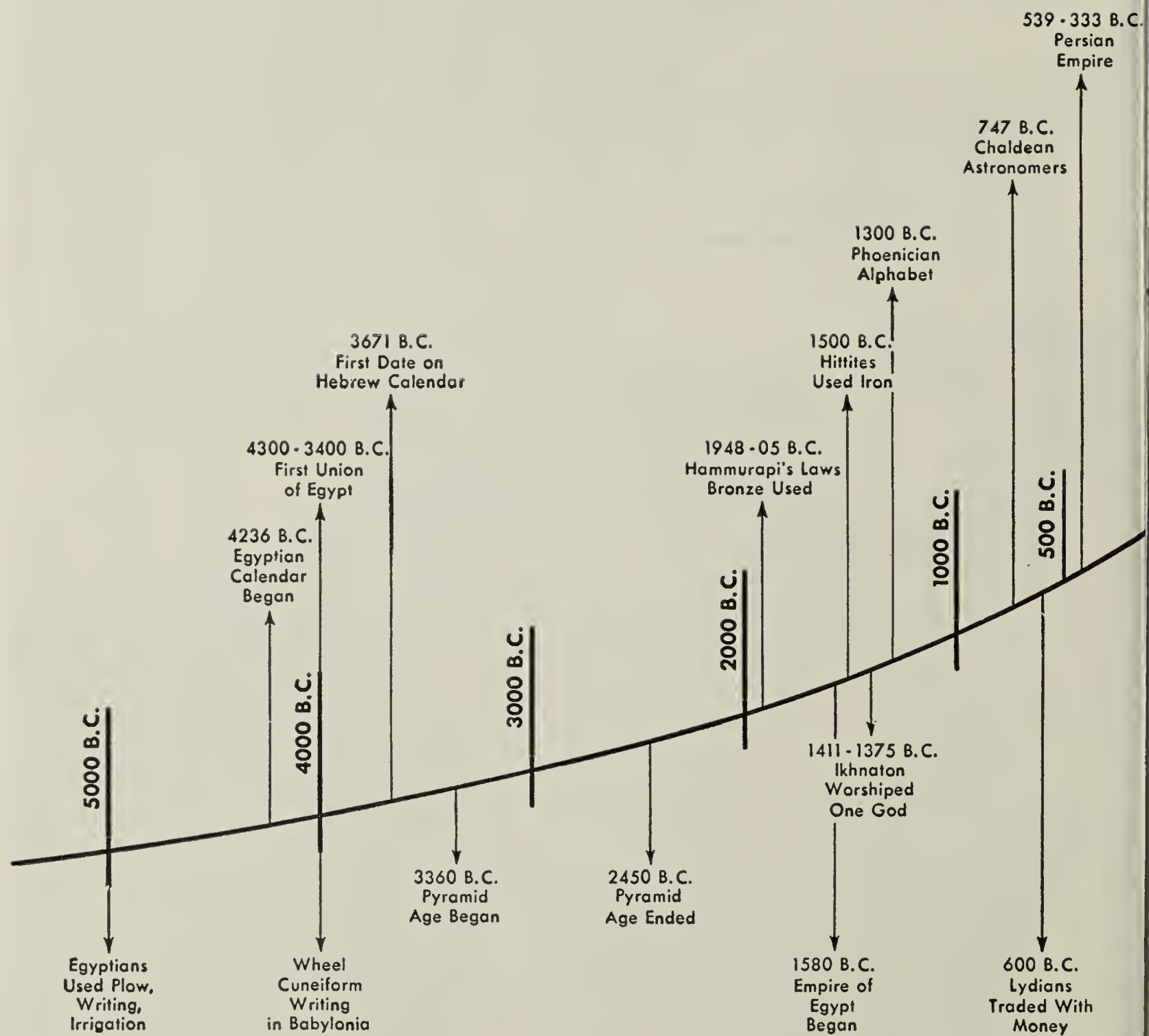
How the First Men Lived by Lancelot T. Hogben, Chanticleer Press, Inc.

How Man Became a Giant by M. Ilin and E. Segal, J. B. Lippincott Company, Inc.

Unit 2

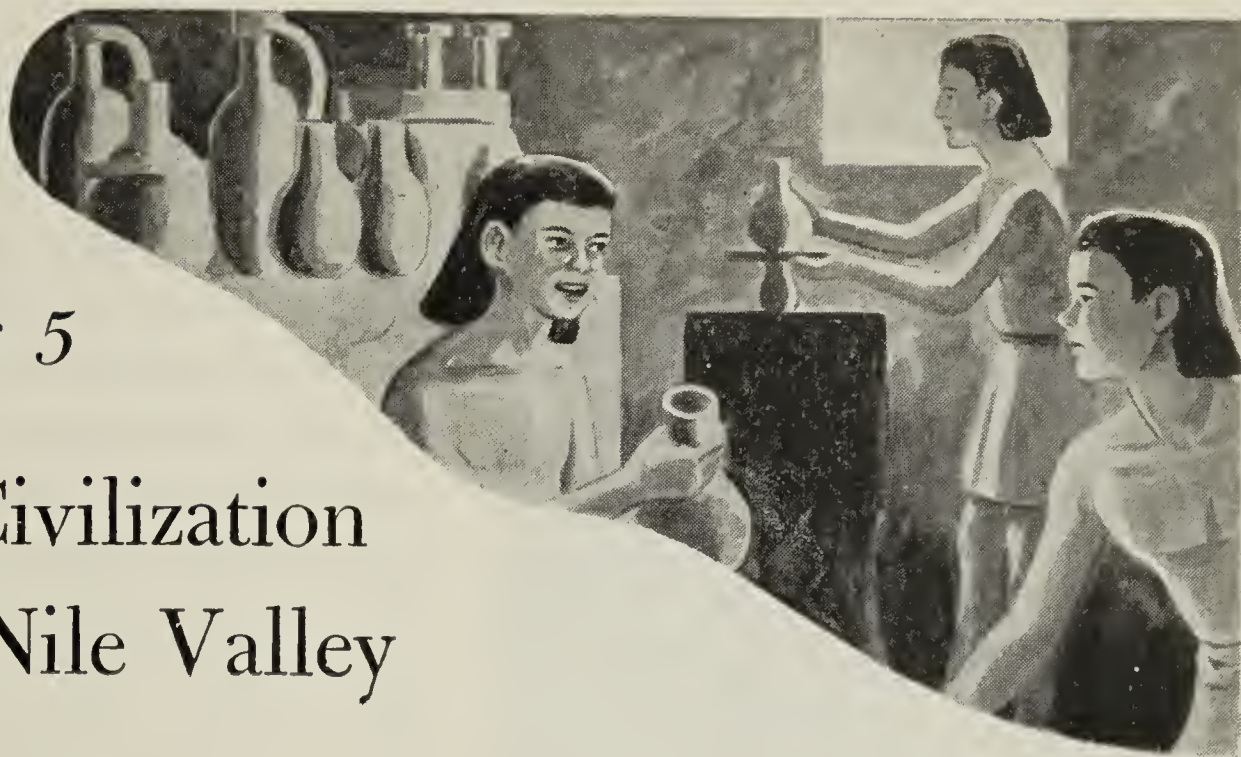


Ancient Times in Egypt and the Fertile Crescent



Chapter 5

Early Civilization in the Nile Valley



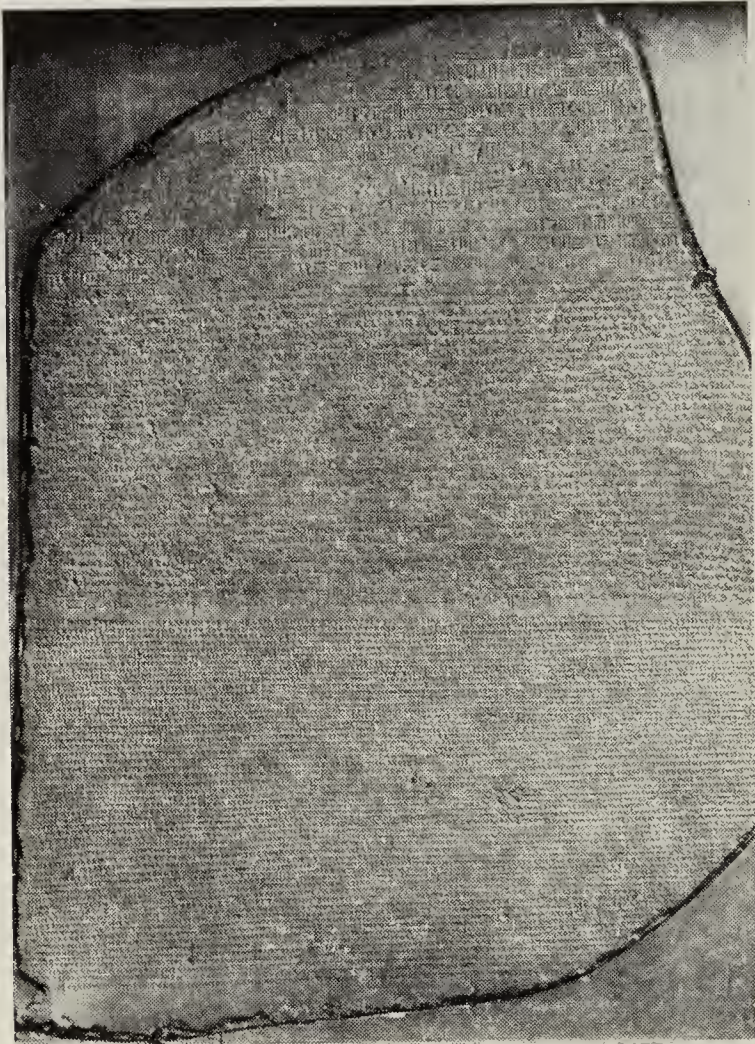
Egypt is in the warm, rich valley of the Nile River in northern Africa. If you were to go to Egypt today, you would see huge stone monuments, called pyramids, and the ruins of great stone temples. These pyramids and temples have stood along the Nile for almost five thousand years. On many of the ruins are pictures carved in the hard stone.

Scholars who hunt for remains of the past and study them carefully are called archaeologists (ar'·chē·ōl'ō·gists). Archaeologists thought that some of these strange pictures must be a kind of ancient writing. This picture-writing was called *hieroglyphics* (hī'er·ō·glŷph'ics), but no one could understand what the writing meant.

A Key to Egyptian Civilization

In 1799 some French soldiers were building a fort near the Nile River. While digging one day, the soldiers found a queer slab of stone. On this stone were carved pictures and curious writing. This might be the answer to the riddle of Egyptian hieroglyphics. This famous relic of ancient Egypt became known as the Rosetta Stone, because it was found near the Rosetta Mouth of the Nile.

Archaeologists who studied the Rosetta Stone found on it three kinds of writing. One was Greek. Scholars could read it.



The Rosetta Stone solved a big mystery.
Now Egyptian writing could be read.

Another language was very early Egyptian hieroglyphic. The third was writing of a much later period of Egyptian history. Champollion (shän'pôl'yôn'), a French scholar, guessed that each writing on the stone had the same thing to tell. He studied the marks on the Rosetta Stone for many years. Finally, by using the Greek writing to help him, he figured out the secrets of the other two kinds of writing. His painstaking detective work made it possible to read the record told by the carvings on the ruins of the ancient Egyptian buildings.

The story that the archaeologists discovered about Egypt is one of the most interesting in all the world. It is the story of how the Egyptians learned better ways of living in Ancient Times.

BEGINNINGS OF CIVILIZATION IN THE NILE VALLEY

In the northern part of Africa lie the hot, dry sands of the Sahara Desert. It almost never rains there. In many places nothing can grow in the parched earth. Through the eastern part of the desert flows the Nile River. This great river rises in Lake Victoria, the largest lake in Africa, and flows for 4,000 miles northward to the Mediterranean Sea. For thousands of years the Nile has cut a valley through the sands and rocky cliffs.

Each year the river overflows its banks and leaves rich, black mud spread over the land for about ten miles on each side. Crops can be grown easily in this narrow fertile valley. The valley looks like a long green ribbon winding through the hot sands of northern Africa. As it approaches the Mediterranean Sea, the Nile divides into several mouths. It drops the rich soil carried in its waters and forms a wide green delta. Because the river gives life to the valley, Egypt is often called "the gift of the Nile."

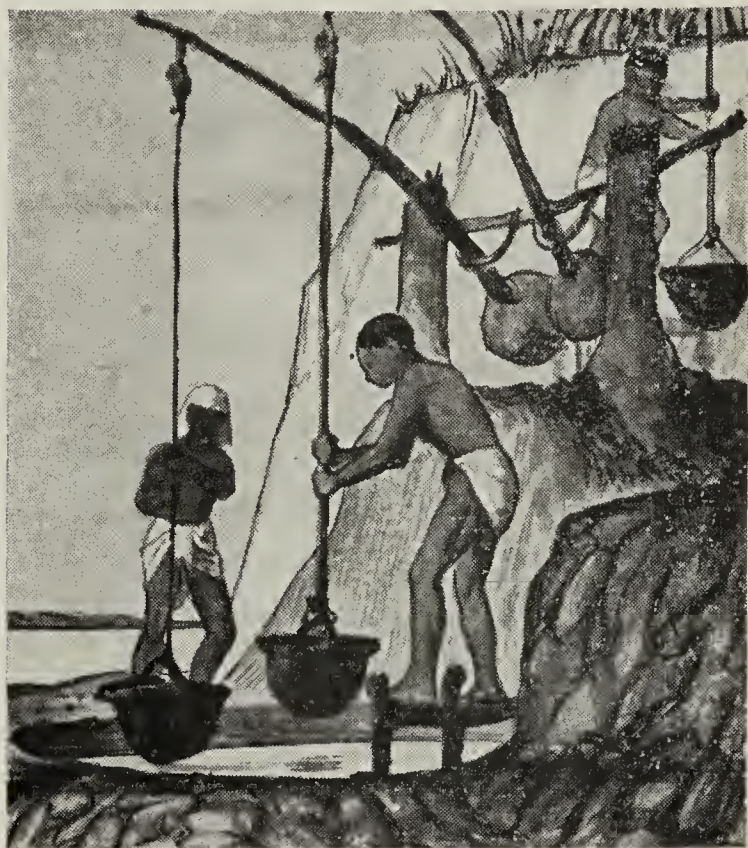
Early Egyptians in the Nile Valley

Groups of New Stone Age men probably wandered into the Nile Valley about ten thousand years ago. They found it a good place to live because nature was kind to them there. The climate was warm all the year round. The desert protected them from war-like tribes. They were near a supply of water. Wild grain grew along the banks of the Nile. The New Stone Age men then no longer needed to roam about searching for food. There was a constant supply close at hand. They stayed in the valley and began a settled life.

These brown-skinned, black-haired people lived in huts, which



64 they made by twisting together weeds that grew in the marshes. They domesticated animals. They knew how to weave and make pottery. They “tamed” the wild grain and grew it on their little farms. They stored their grain in small, round pits.



Can you see how the shadoof worked?

Archaeologists have found some of the grain that was gathered and stored in these pits thousands of years ago.

When the New Stone Age Egyptians settled down to live in one place, they found time to improve their ways of living. They took some important steps ahead that led them to civilization. Archaeologists think that before 5000 B.C. the Egyptians had learned to write, to use a calendar, and to make fine cloth, and that they had developed a system of government. When men learn to

do these things we call them civilized. That is why we say *Egyptian civilization started about 5000 B.C.*

The Egyptians Developed an Irrigation System

Except during the yearly floods, the Nile flowed in its bed between high mud banks. The fertile soil above the banks had to have water if crops were to grow. The fields had to be watered. At first the Egyptians probably climbed down the banks and carried water to their farms in skin buckets. Then they thought of a better plan. They dug ditches and canals from their farms to the banks of the river. They carried the water up the banks, poured it in the ditches and let it flow through them to the fields.

It was hard, back-breaking work to climb up and down the

banks. Some clever Egyptian invented a way to help lift the water up to the canals. A bucket was hitched to the end of a long pole that was attached to a crossbar. This made a simple pump called a *shadoof* (shä·dōōf'). It saved many aching muscles.

Much later, the Egyptians learned to build dams to hold back the water in reservoirs (rěz'ēr·vwôr). They built gates which they opened to let the water into the canals, or shut to keep the waters in the reservoirs. During the floods they stored the water in the reservoirs to be used in the dry season. Men had again improved on nature. After the Egyptians learned how to irrigate, they were able to grow great quantities of food. Not so many people died of hunger. The population of ancient Egypt grew larger. Hundreds of little farming villages dotted the banks of the Nile.

Egyptian Farms

On their farms the Egyptians grew wheat, barley, and millet. They raised onions, crisp radishes, cucumbers, melons, peas, beans, and lettuce. They grew grapes from which they made wine. They raised flax, which they spun and wove into linen.

Each year, after the flood season was over, the Egyptians planted their crops. Some of the farmers threw the seeds on the wet ground and let the animals tramp them into the rich soil. Pictures on the monuments show that some farmers used a crude wooden plough or a short hoe to cultivate the soil. They had a wooden sickle with a flint edge to cut the grain. After the grain was cut, it was taken in baskets to the threshing floor. Here cattle were driven to tread on it and thresh out the kernels.

Beside taming cattle, the ancient Egyptians were able to domesticate goats, sheep, pigs, donkeys, geese, ducks, pigeons, and storks. During the overflow season, farmers had to move their animals to the dry sections away from the flooded grazing lands. They were kept in stalls and fed on straw from the



wheat, and on sweet clover which the farmers grew for hay. The herds and flocks were so important to people living settled lives that they learned to take care of the animals.

New Ways of Living

During Stone Age times most people lived in about the same simple way. Each person did about the same amount of work, lived in the same kind of shelter, and had about the same quantity of food to eat. As years passed, however, there came to be many differences among the inhabitants of the Nile Valley.

Gradually there came to be two classes of people in ancient Egypt, the rich and the poor. Those who became rich and powerful were the nobles. The nobles owned most of the lands and herds. They kept bands of soldiers to protect their large farms and force the poor to work for them. The nobles paid taxes of grain and cattle as tribute to the chief noble who led them in time of battle. They gave him soldiers to serve in his army.

Ambitious and greedy leaders often went on wars to gain more land and wealth. They made the conquered people their slaves. The slaves were forced to carry the water for the soil and care for the herds. Little by little, strong chiefs gained control of great tracts of land along the Nile. They became kings and ruled over the people they conquered. There were several kingdoms along the Nile.

Most of the farmers, or peasants, were not actually owned as slaves. However, they had to pay such high rent and taxes for the land they farmed, that their lot was only a little better than that of the slaves. They worked in the fields from sunrise to sunset, and most of what they raised went into the treasure house of the rich land owner. At night they slept in crowded, mud huts built along the dirty streets of the village.

Many different kinds of workers were needed. Some workers spent all their time making pottery, others were weavers, jewelers, dressmakers, or carpenters. Some became very skillful



craftsmen. Some of the slaves worked as craftsmen in the workshops of the nobles. Some did such fine work that they earned their freedom. They set up their own shops and made a living selling their wares. Some craftsmen grew rich and famous because of their beautiful work.

Egyptian builders discovered how to build a roof, held up by posts. They learned to make fine houses. Because there was very little wood in Egypt, houses were built of sun-dried bricks on wooden or stone frames. The roofs were flat. It seldom rained in the valley of the Nile and so the Egyptians did not have to build sloping roofs to shed rain water.

Of course only the kings and nobles were wealthy enough to have fine homes, with beautiful furniture. Most of the people were simple farmers, craftsmen, and slaves. They had few comforts and worked hard. There was a great difference in Egypt between the life of the poor and the life of the well-to-do.

The Egyptians Learned to Govern

The nobles learned lessons in government as they managed their large estates. They had so much to attend to that they appointed officers to help them. There were officials who gave the peasants tools and seed. They showed them how to plant and irrigate the soil. Certain officers, called overseers, watched over the slaves to be sure they spent all their time working. There were men whose job it was to have the slaves store the grain in great storehouses. Clerks kept track of what each



An Egyptian farmer threshing his grain.
Did he sell the grain?

peasant raised and what he owed as taxes to the noble. When the peasants quarreled among themselves or with the overseers, the nobles had to settle the argument. In this way, on their estates, the nobles developed a system of governing other men.



The kings gathered wise men about them to help solve the problem of ruling their kingdoms. They learned that they could hold their power only as long as they had a strong government, backed up by an army, to keep the common people and the nobles under control. The king had a powerful weapon because he controlled the irrigation system. If a noble refused to pay his taxes, or displeased the king, soldiers were ordered to close the ditches that let the water from the Nile flow to the farms of the noble. This usually brought the disobedient noble to terms.

THE FIRST UNION OF EGYPT

About 5000 B.C. a very powerful king conquered the lands near the Delta and set up one government for them all. This was called the Kingdom of Lower Egypt. It was the first large government in Egypt. It took a great deal of skill and planning to control and manage the affairs of the thousands of people who lived in the valley of the lower Nile. Later, a strong leader of upper Egypt conquered the region in the narrower valley south of the Delta region. The government that he set up we call the Kingdom of Upper Egypt. About 4300 B.C. the king of Lower Egypt conquered Upper Egypt, and the valley of the Nile was united for the first time. This government is called the First Union of Egypt. It lasted for almost nine hundred years, from about 4300 B.C. to about 3400 B.C.

Better Tools

During the period of the First Union, Egyptian workers took some more important steps along the road to better living. Farmers learned to harness animals to help them. They length-

ened the handle of the plough and fastened it to a yoke that rested on the horns of two oxen. The barelegged farmers guided the plough as the oxen did the heavy work of dragging it through the soil. When men learned to make domesticated animals do part of their work, they had taken control of another of nature's gifts, *the muscle power of animals*.

About 4000 B.C. the Egyptians discovered that copper could be heated and hammered into strong, sharp tools and weapons. A few of the workers discarded their old-fashioned flint tools and began to use newer ones made of copper. At first the supply of copper was scarce. It was many years before the Egyptians found enough copper for their needs. Just as today some people find it hard to change their habits, there were many Egyptians who clung to their good old flint tools. It took a long time for the new-styled tools to be adopted by everyone, but stone as the chief material for tools and weapons was on its way out. The age of metals had begun. Man had changed another of nature's gifts to suit his needs.



The Egyptians Learned to Write

The officers of the kings had so many duties to attend to that they had to have some way to remember which of the thousands of farmers had paid their taxes and how much grain each one owed. On the mud huts they scratched crude pictures of the number of cattle or measures of grain that each farmer must pay. To keep their business records straight, they probably kept lists of pictures in the king's offices to show how much they had collected. When a king needed to send a secret message to a noble in another part of his kingdom, he had a trusted man, called a scribe, draw the message in pictures.

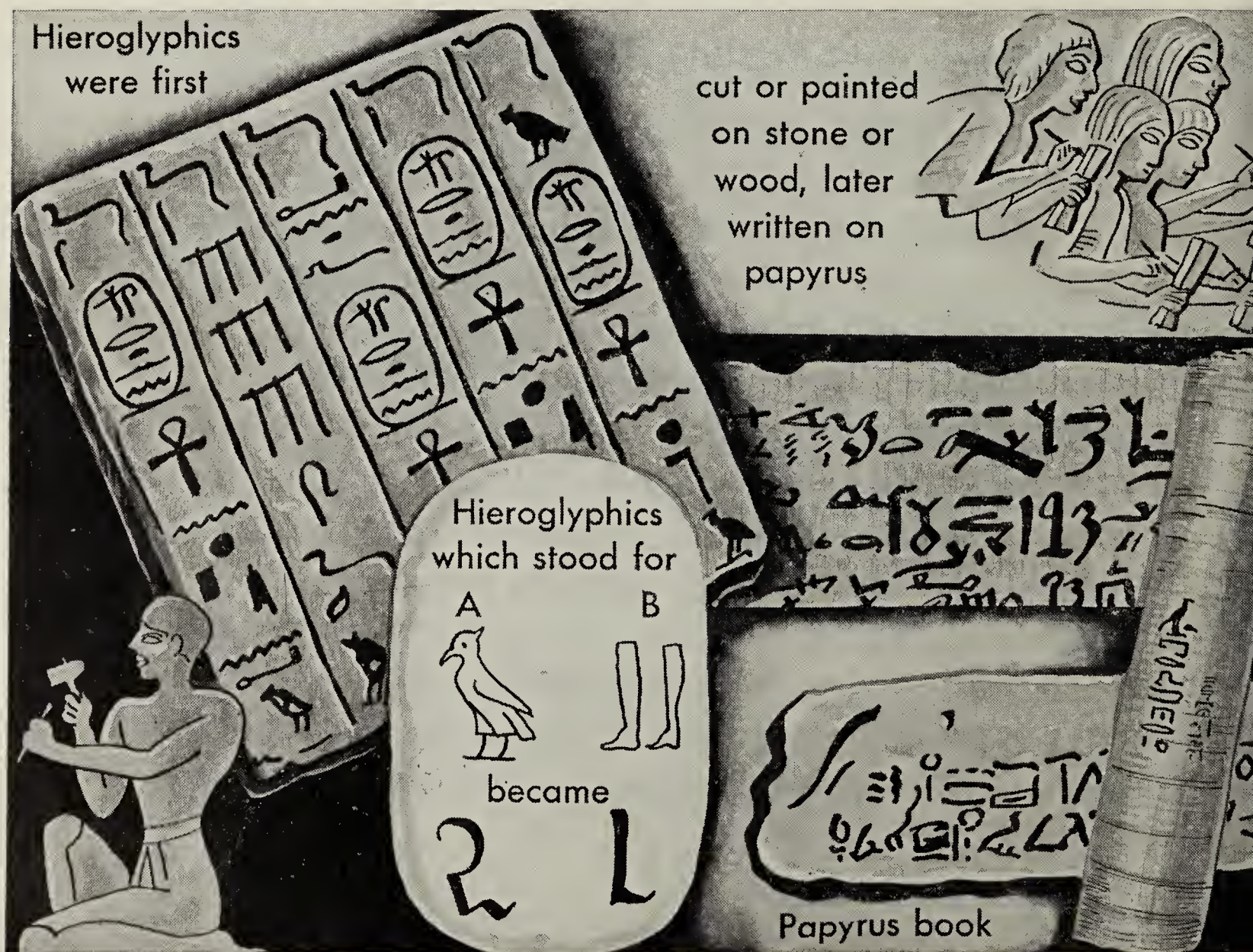
Gradually the scribes learned to draw pictures that stood for ideas. The priests and scribes found that the simple idea-pictures did not express all they wanted to write. They could not draw a picture of the words that stood for the ideas of kindness,

friendship, hope, love, hate, belief, or many others. They found a way out of this difficulty by making pictures that stood for the syllables of a word. In the English language this would mean that the picture of a bee no longer stood for a bug, but meant the syllable “be” when it was found in any word. The picture of a leaf would come to mean the sound “leaf.” Put together, the sound pictures meant “belief.”

After the priests and scribes had used the sound-pictures for a long time, they began to draw them very rapidly. The pictures were gradually changed to signs that stood for sounds. They developed more than six hundred of these signs. By putting the signs together, they could write any word in the Egyptian language. Man had invented another tool to serve him, *writing*.

About 3400 B.C. the Egyptians developed an alphabet of single sounds that stood for 24 letters. It was never used widely because the priests liked the syllable sounds better. Egyptian

People worked very hard to invent writing. Make some picture words of your own.



writing is called hieroglyphics, which means “priests’ writing,” because the priests in the temples were the ones who used writing the most. It was hard to read and write hieroglyphics and only a few people learned to do so. The poor peasants had no time to spend learning to read and write.

The Egyptians invented a fine material on which to write. In the marshes along the Nile grew a weed called papyrus (pā·pī’rūs). They learned to split and paste the papyrus stems together into strong, thin sheets of paper. Our word “paper” comes from the ancient word “papyrus.”

The scribes thickened water and soot with a little vegetable gum to make ink. For pens they used pointed reeds. The hieroglyphics on the temples and pyramids were carved with copper chisels. The workmen carefully copied the patterns written for them by the priests and scribes. The hieroglyphics written on the papyrus scrolls and carved on the stone of Egyptian temples and monuments are among the first written records of man.

The First Calendar

The Egyptians found they needed some way to keep track of time. As they watched the moon appear in the sky each month, they began to use it to help them reckon. The farmers learned to figure how many moons it took for their seeds to grow and ripen into grain. It was probably the priests who first worked out a calendar of moon months. In time, they found out that the moon months varied from 29 to 30 days. By patiently watching the sun, the stars, and the planets, they reckoned the year as 365 days long.

In 4236 B.C. the Egyptians worked out another calendar. 4236 B.C. was the first recorded date of historic times. This new calendar had 12 months of 30 days each, which made a year of 360 days. At the end of the year they had five feast days to make up the 365 days. The Egyptian thinkers were amazingly near the truth about the length of the year. They did not know at this

time that the year is really $365\frac{1}{4}$ days long. That is why we have a leap year, 366 days long, every 4 years. The later Egyptians found this out.

The Egyptians numbered the months, but they did not number the years from a fixed date, as we do. They had to have some way to keep the different years straight. For a long time they named each year after some important event that happened that particular year. From about 3400 B.C. to 2700 B.C. the Egyptians kept long lists of the names of the years. Later they numbered the years of each king's reign. They dated an event by the year it occurred in the reign of a certain ruler.

The Egyptians divided the year into three seasons instead of four, as we do. The time of year when the Nile overflowed its banks was called the "Inundation" (in'un·da'shun). The season when the tiny seeds were springing into green plants was the "Coming Forth." The third season was called the "Harvest."

THE SECOND UNION OF EGYPT

Sometime before 3400 B.C. the strong government of the First Union of Egypt broke up and there were two kingdoms once again. Then a powerful leader named Menes (mē'nēz) arose in Upper Egypt. After he made himself king of Upper Egypt, he conquered Lower Egypt. This Second Union of Egypt lasted from about 3360 B.C. to about 2450 B.C.

It was during the time of the Second Union that the Egyptians began to call their kings pharaohs (fā'rōs). These rulers were so mighty that probably the people did not dare speak their names. They spoke of the ruler as the pharaoh, which meant "the dweller in the big house." Menes was the first pharaoh of Egypt.

Great steps forward in civilization took place during the Second Union. Most of the workers now used metal tools. On the Peninsula of Sinai (sī'nī), in Asia, were large mines of the precious copper. Pharaohs sent expeditions of miners to Sinai

to dig the copper out of the mountains. Today, in the long tunnels that were driven into the mines at Sinai, visitors can see pictures carved on the rocks by the Egyptian miners thousands of years ago. These records tell how hard the miners worked in the terrible heat of the mines.

Craftsmen made finer and finer goods with their copper tools. The Egyptians had learned to build boats, too, that were rowed on the Nile by oarsmen. The boats carried wares to be traded in different parts of the kingdom. The Nile was the road of Egypt, and on it traveled the traders and nobles of this rich land. Boat builders made ships large enough to go on the great Mediterranean. Pharaohs sent these ships across the southeastern corner of the Mediterranean Sea to the port of Byblos. From Byblos they carried back to Egypt wood for Egypt's shipbuilders and carpenters.



Some brave sailors even dared take their boats to trade at the island of Crete (krēt), where another civilization was growing. Pharaohs sent caravans of donkeys far south, into the heart of Africa, to get ivory, ebony, and ostrich feathers from the tribes there. Egypt grew very rich. The treasure houses of the pharaohs were filled with grain, honey, and fine goods.

The Religion of Egypt

Like other early people, the Egyptians believed in many gods. They thought these gods controlled the sun, the moon, the river, and their lives. The food supply of Egypt depended upon the rays of the warm sun and the water of the friendly Nile. It was only natural that the two most important gods of the valley were the sun-god, Re (rā), and Osiris (ō·sī'rīs), god of the Nile.

The Egyptians thought their gods sometimes lived in the bodies of animals. The bull, the cat, the dog, the crocodile, and many other animals were sacred to them. They would not harm or kill these animals. To do so, they believed, would make the

gods angry and misfortune would come to the land of the Nile.

The Egyptians thought the gods needed a home, and so they built temples of clay where the gods could live. Priests spent their lives in the temples trying to please the gods. They worked out elaborate ceremonies of worship, and on certain days each year the people went to the temple to join in the ceremonies and to beg for plenty of water and a good harvest.

The Egyptians believed in a life after death. Osiris, who cared for them in this world, would take care of them in the Other World. To reach the kingdom of Osiris they thought that the soul had to travel across a region filled with evil spirits and snakes. The relatives of the dead man and the priests said prayers to help the spirit get across safely. In the Hall of Judgment they thought the heart was weighed on scales to see whether its owner was good or bad. There were forty-two Judges of the Dead. Thoth (thōth), the god of wisdom, was the chief judge.

The Nile River was a busy place, with pleasure and business traffic. Along its banks



He decided whether the soul should be rewarded with everlasting life or be punished.

The Egyptians thought they could keep the soul alive in the Other World by placing food and drink in the graves. They also put in articles of daily use that the souls might need. At first the early Egyptians probably piled heavy stones over the graves to protect the bodies from wild animals and grave robbers. The rich nobles and pharaohs wanted to be sure that their souls would have plenty in the Other World. While they were alive, they had their slaves build tombs of sun-dried brick in which their bodies and belongings were to be placed. The pharaohs built bigger and bigger tombs.

The Egyptians learned to preserve the bodies of their important men with spices and oils. Then they wrapped the bodies in fine linen. They became such skillful embalmers that many Egyptian mummies, as these bodies are called, have been found

lived the nobles in their beautiful houses, and the poor in their small reed huts.





in Egypt. They are well preserved even to this day. If you happen to live near a museum perhaps you can see one of these mummies for yourself. Because the Egyptians made such careful preparation for their lives after death, their tombs have helped archaeologists to trace, almost step by step, the long story of Egypt.

THINGS TO DO

I. QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS.

1. What is the Rosetta Stone and why is it a key to the story of ancient Egypt?
2. Why is Egypt called the "gift of the Nile"?
3. Why do we say that Egyptian civilization started about 5000 B.C.?
4. How did the early Egyptians work out ways of watering their land?
5. What kinds of work were done by the early farmers of Egypt?
6. How did the Egyptians slowly become divided into classes? How did the ways of living of the rich and the poor differ?
7. How did the Egyptians learn to govern large groups of people?
8. What was the First Union of Egypt and how long did it last?
9. What improvements did the early Egyptians make in their tools?
10. What way of writing did the Egyptians work out? What kind of a calendar?
11. What steps forward did the Egyptians take during the Second Union of Egypt?
12. What was the religion of the people of early Egypt?

<i>The Rosetta Stone</i>		<i>The Kingdom of Upper</i>	
<i>The "Gift of the Nile"</i>		<i>Egypt</i>	
<i>The Kingdom of Lower</i>		<i>The First Union of Egypt</i>	
<i>Egypt</i>		<i>The Second Union of Egypt</i>	
<i>delta</i>	<i>nobles</i>	<i>papyrus scrolls</i>	<i>scribes</i>
<i>peasants</i>	<i>pharaoh</i>	<i>mummy</i>	<i>irrigation</i>
<i>slaves</i>	<i>government</i>	<i>hieroglyphics</i>	<i>reservoir</i>

III. A NEW MENU. The diet of the Egyptians was more interesting than that of Stone Age people. Make a list of the new foods that were grown in the Valley of the Nile. Put a star beside the foods you particularly enjoy eating.

IV. THE MAP TELLS A STORY OF TRADE. On an outline map print the following places. Beside each of the names write or draw a picture of the things the Egyptian traders got at that place to take on their boats to and from Egypt.

The Nile River	Byblos
Upper Egypt	Delta of the Nile
Lower Egypt	Heart of Africa
The Sahara Desert	Sinai
Mediterranean Sea	Crete

Work out a "key" to the map which explains all the information you include.

V. WHO'S WHO IN ANCIENT EGYPT. Keep a Who's Who page in your notebook. List the names you think are important and put them on the *Who's Who* list. One important name for early Egypt is Menes. Write a few words beside each name to show who the person was.

- VI. THE RELIGION OF ANCIENT EGYPT. The people of Ancient Times had different gods and goddesses and different ideas about religion. Start your chart for the religion of ancient Egypt. Consult encyclopedias and library books for more information. You may want to draw a little picture beside each name. Appoint a committee to make an Egyptian Religion chart for your Class Book.
- VII. AN HONOR ROLL. Appoint a committee to make an Honor Roll for your bulletin board. On this roll print the names of scientists or scholars of Modern Times who have helped unlock the story of the past. Have the class vote on the names that should be honored. One of the first names may be Eugene Dubois, the bone-hunter. Champollion deserves a place on the list. Why?
- VIII. EXPLANATIONS. Divide your class into groups. Each group will select one of the following topics to explain to the class. It is the group job of each to be an authority on the subject and make certain that every member in the class understands it correctly.
- | | |
|-----------------------|--------------------------|
| The Rosetta Stone | Irrigation |
| Farming | The Different Classes of |
| The Government of the | People |
| Egyptians | The First Calendar |
- IX. SIGN POSTS OF CIVILIZATION. Appoint a committee to make a large class poster that shows sign posts on the road to civilization. Have an arrow pointing toward Ancient Times. Draw a series of sign posts on the road. On each sign print the new ways of living developed by the Egyptians. You will want to include dates on your poster.

- X. TIME FOR PENMANSHIP. Try your hand at writing a story in syllables or sound pictures. You may have difficulty thinking of pictures to stand for all the syllables. Ask your teacher to have a class discussion to exchange ideas about what pictures to use.
- XI. LET'S MAKE A CALENDAR. The Egyptians worked out a calendar to help them keep track of time. Try making a calendar that shows the events of one month of your own life. The year will be the number of years you are old. Give the year a name, as well. Name your month by some important happening. In the space for each day you may print what happened.



Chapter 6

Pyramids, Temples, and Tombs

During the last five hundred years of the Second Union of Egypt, the mighty pharaohs built their tombs of great blocks of stone. These giant gravestones are the pyramids that stretch for sixty miles along the Nile near the ancient city of Gizeh (gē'zā). This cemetery of the pharaohs was known as the City of the Dead. The Egyptians thought of the pharaohs as a combination of their greatest gods. To the people, the pyramids were sacred tombstones, erected as monuments to the gods of Egypt. Around each pyramid stood smaller tombs in which were buried the relatives and nobles of the pharaoh.

THE PYRAMID AGE

The largest of the pyramids was the Great Pyramid of Khufu (kōō'fōō), which was begun in 2285 B.C. It covers thirteen acres. There it still stands on the edge of the desert, not far from the present city of Cairo (kī'rō). It is said that for twenty long years 100,000 men slaved in the hot sun of Egypt to build this tomb for their pharaoh. They lifted into place 2,300,000

blocks of stone that weighed about two and one-half tons each. The sides of this enormous building are 756 feet long. The pyramid was almost 500 feet high when it was first constructed. Wind and sand and the slow sinking of the heavy tomb have cut down its height somewhat during the past four thousand years.

The architects who planned the pyramids had learned much about building. They knew how to cut the huge blocks of stone, ship them down the Nile, and haul them to the spot where the tomb was to be erected. The great blocks had to be lifted into place on ramps and fastened securely. It would have been impossible to build the pyramids without strong copper tools.

The pharaohs and nobles built small temples near their pyramids. They had a room called a chapel, built inside the door of their tombs. In the temples and chapel rooms relatives placed fresh food and drink each day, for they thought the soul might come back to the chapel hungry.

Slaves, working under an overseer, building one of the huge pyramids.



WAYS OF LIVING IN THE PYRAMID AGE

The walls of the chapels and temples are covered from top to bottom with pictures that were painted there during the lifetime of the famous men of the Pyramid Age. No doubt the pharaohs and nobles had the pictures painted to boast of their power and wealth. They thought, as well, that their souls would enjoy looking at the pictures that told of their lives on earth. The tombs are giant picture books of ways of living in the Pyramid Age.

Egyptian Workers in the Pyramid Age

If you could visit the tombs, you would see pictures of the Egyptian farmers ploughing their fields, milking their cows,



Tomb paintings tell us about ancient Egypt. What activities do you see here? Look at each picture carefully.

and leading their donkeys heavily loaded with grain. You would see coppersmiths making tools. They were very skillful and knew how to make sharp saws, strong enough to cut the great blocks of stone for the pyramids. There are pictures of goldsmiths and jewelers making lovely ornaments in the workshops of the nobles. There are potters sitting before the potter's wheel shaping vases. The potter's wheel was invented in Egypt. There are pictures of large furnaces, where the fine pottery was baked.

The pictures on the tombs show craftsmen making glass and beautiful glazed tiles to decorate the villas and palaces. Women are weaving linen almost as fine as silk. Samples of their work have been found wrapped around

the mummies. Men are gathering papyrus reeds in the Nile marshes to make paper, which was not only used in Egypt but was shipped to southwestern Asia and later to Europe.

As you look at the pictures you feel as if you had turned the time clock back four thousand years and were walking along the busy streets of the ancient city of Gizeh. You can almost hear the sound of the hammers as you see the pictures of hundreds of workmen building a ship or the arm of the cabinet-maker raised to pound a copper nail.

There are pictures of the market place. A shoemaker is selling a pair of sandals to the baker for a cake. The carpenter's wife is exchanging a small wooden box for a fish. The potter's wife gives two bowls for a jar of ointment. The pictures tell us that the Egyptians did not use coined money. They bartered their goods, as men did in the Stone Age. Archaeologists have learned, however, that the pharaohs and nobles used heavy rings of gold or copper as money in their important business affairs.

Homes of the Nobles

The pictures show the luxurious homes of the wealthy. You see a noble resting in his garden, listening to the song of the harp and watching women dance to the music. His children splash in the garden pools or play with balls, dolls, or jumping-jacks in the shade of the palm trees.

The nobleman is shown in his home eating a rich meal. The ceiling of the room is painted blue, like the sky. Columns, carved and painted to look like palm trees, hold up the ceiling. Brightly painted birds are flying about. On the floor are pictures of cool water, reeds, and darting fish. The furniture is ornamented with gold and silver. The cushions are of soft leather. This pleasant, beautifully decorated house of a wealthy Egyptian was very different from the smoke-filled cave of his Stone Age ancestors. But the noblemen enjoyed many of these comforts because of the efforts that early man had made to learn better ways of living.

Art in the Pyramid Age

The artists who painted these pictures on the walls of the tombs paid much attention to the little details of their pictures. Their paintings look strange to us because everything was painted about the same size. They had not learned to show distance by painting things smaller in the background of the picture.

Some of the Egyptians in the Pyramid Age had become good sculptors. They made lifelike statues, carved out of wood and stone. Some of the statues they made were delightful carvings of colored stone. Others were tremendous stone portraits of their pharaohs. The largest stone statue in the world is the Sphinx. It stands in the City of the Dead. The Sphinx is the portrait of an ancient Egyptian pharaoh. It was carved out of an immense rock which stood in front of his pyramid.

The homes of the wealthy of Egypt were furnished in beauty and comfort.



During the Pyramid Age the Egyptians took long steps ahead in government, building, crafts, and art. The pharaohs, however, spent too much of their time planning their pyramids. The workers were forced to do an almost unbelievable amount of work, cutting and dragging the heavy stones into place and making the things the pharaohs wanted with them in their tombs.

Perhaps the pharaohs thought more about their lives after death than they did about solving the problems of governing Egypt wisely. The nobles began to give the pharaohs trouble. They refused to pay taxes to the pharaohs. They seized lands and power. They fought among themselves. About 2460 B.C. the pharaohs lost control of the nobles. The strong government of the Second Union of Egypt was destroyed and the Pyramid Age came to an end.

THE AGE OF THE NOBLES

During the next few hundred years the pharaohs had much less power. The nobles forced the pharaohs to give them great tracts of land. The nobles ruled over their large estates almost as kings. The center of Egyptian civilization moved from around the pyramids farther up the Nile to the south. The nobles had their workers cut tombs for them in the rocky cliffs, back from the river.

Books and Libraries

The chapels in the cliff tombs were painted with scenes from the houses of the rich nobles. The nobles were interested in learning, and they collected large libraries of papyrus rolls, which were the books of Egypt. Fortunately, some of the papyrus rolls have been found in the cliff tombs, preserved in the hot, dry air of the valley. The rolls are often 30 to 40 feet long. One of the longest rolls that has been found is 133 feet long and 16½ inches high. There are rolls that tell stories which

are probably the ancestors of "Cinderella" and "Sinbad the Sailor." They are the oldest storybooks in the world.

Other papyrus rolls are books of poems, hymns, or songs to the gods, plays, and pageants. In their libraries the nobles had



An Egyptian library of papyrus rolls.

rolls of geography and science. From their arithmetic books we learn that the Egyptians worked out the decimal system and knew something of geometry and algebra. The oldest book of medicine in the world is a papyrus roll almost 65 feet long. Some of these ancient books are in museums in the United States today.

The papyrus rolls show that during the Age of the Nobles Egyptian thinkers took some important steps forward in good living. There were writers who said that men should be kind to

one another. Some Egyptians began to think that the best way to be sure of a happy life after death was to live a good life here on earth. They said that no matter how well the body was preserved, or how much food or furniture of gold was placed in the tombs of the dead, the soul would be unhappy after death if its owner had been unfair or wicked while he was alive.

The ancient papyrus rolls tell us that it was during this time that the Egyptians learned how to build reservoirs to store the water of the Nile for irrigation. It was at this time, too, that the rulers dug a canal to connect the Red Sea and the Nile River. This was the ancestor of the modern Suez Canal. It was a great help to ships carrying goods between Asia and Egypt.

Gradually the pharaohs of this period gained back much of

their power. They lost it again, however, when the Hyksos (hĭk'sōs), people from southwestern Asia, invaded and overran Egypt. One reason the Hyksos were able to conquer the Egyptians was because they had horses and chariots on wheels to help them in battle. This was a new way of fighting to the people of Egypt. Their armies were no match for the invaders.

THE EGYPTIAN EMPIRE

After a time the Egyptians managed to drive the Hyksos back to Asia. A new line of powerful pharaohs took control of Egypt. They borrowed the idea of fighting with horses and chariots. With their great armies of archers and war chariots they set out to conquer their neighbors who had become civilized and grown into large nations. They conquered and ruled over so many nearby countries that Egypt became an empire. An empire is made up of a group of nations ruled over by the most powerful nation among them. The Egyptian Empire extended from the Euphrates River in southwest Asia to several hundred miles up the Nile. The Egyptians had taken another step in government. The pharaohs now ruled not one but many nations, or an empire.

The pharaohs of the empire had a well-organized government, with thousands of officials to carry out many duties. During the long centuries of Egypt's history, the rulers had learned, first, to manage the affairs of the small kingdoms, then the whole of Egypt, and now a large part of the ancient world.



The Great Sphinx, a monument to a pharaoh of the Pyramid Age.

The pharaohs of the empire were wise, able, and for the most part, kind rulers. The empire lasted for about 400 years.

Builders of the Empire

The pharaohs of the empire were great generals, and with their powerful armies they carried back to Egypt riches from the lands they conquered. The capital of the empire was the ancient city of Thebes (thēbs), about 400 miles up the Nile. Architects were paid great fortunes to plan and build huge temples in honor of the many gods of Egypt. There were so

many temples and statues erected in Thebes that it is sometimes called “the City of Monuments.”

The chief god of Thebes was Amon. The Egyptians built the great Temple of Karnak (kär'nāk) to honor Amon. As worshippers approached the Temple of Karnak, they walked between long rows of stone sphinxes until they reached a gateway in the great wall that surrounded the temple. From an outer court they followed a gateway into the Hall of Columns. This hall had a stone



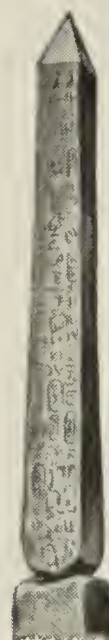
A part of the Temple of Karnak.

roof supported by 136 enormous stone columns. From this stately hall the worshippers went into still other halls, until the very heart of the temple itself was reached.

Inside the temple walls of Karnak stands a tall shaft of stone called an obelisk (ōb'e·lisk). It was erected by the workmen of Queen Hatshepsut (hāt·chēp'sūt), who was the first woman in history to rule an empire. Her obelisk is covered with pictures and records telling of her power. There are other obelisks at

Thebes that tower above the sands to remind us of the glory of the empire. Thebes must have been a beautiful city, with its magnificent temples, statues, and obelisks rising into the blue sky.

On the opposite side of the river from the city of Thebes was the Valley of the Kings. Here the pharaohs, nobles, architects, sculptors, and other great men were buried. There are hundreds of tomb-chapels cut into the cliffs of this valley. The temples, the obelisks, and the tombs in the Valley of the Kings are the giant history books that tell us the story of the empire. They show how far man had traveled on the road to civilization since he first settled down as a simple farmer in early Egypt.



The Idea of One God

One of the pharaohs who ruled during the days of the empire was a great thinker named Amenhotep (ăm'ĕn·hō'tĕp). He thought the Egyptians were wrong to believe in many gods. He felt sure that there was only one god, the god of the sun, and that the sun god was a kind heavenly father. He named this god Aton, which was an old Egyptian word for "sun." Amenhotep changed his own name to Ikhnaton (ĭk'nä·tŏn) in honor of Aton. He tried to destroy the Egyptian custom of worshipping many gods. He ordered the temples closed and the priests banished.

Ikhnaton built a new city farther south. He moved his court there to get away from the temples of Thebes. He wrote songs in praise of the one god, Aton. Here is a part of his "Hymn to the Sun."

Thy dawning is beautiful in the horizon of the sky,
O living Aton, beginning of life!
When thou risest in the eastern horizon,
Thou fillest every land with thy beauty.
Thou art beautiful, great, glittering, high above every land,
Thy rays they encompass the lands, even all that thou hast made.

How manifold are thy works!
 They are hidden from before us,
 O sole god, whose powers no other possesseth.
 Thou didst create the earth according to thy heart
 While thou wast alone.

TUTENKHAMON

The priests of Amon and of the other gods of Egypt were angry with Ikhnaton. After the thoughtful pharaoh died, his young son-in-law, Tutenkhaton became the pharaoh of Egypt. His name meant "Living·Image·of·Aton." The priests and soldiers forced the young Tutenkhaton to return to Thebes and change his name to "Tutenkhamon," (tōōt'ängk·a'men), which means "Living Image of Amon." He was forced to worship Amon and the other gods of the valley. When Tutenkhamon was about eighteen years old he died and was buried near the great pharaohs of the empire. By a strange accident we know more about young Tutenkhamon than we do about the mightiest rulers of the empire. This is the reason why.

The Search for Tutenkhamon's Tomb



The tombs in the Valley of the Kings contained so many valuable things that robbers broke into them to steal the riches. Through the years, the robbers carried away most of the fine things that had been placed in the houses of the dead. Of course the pictures and the carvings on the walls of the tombs were left to tell their story. Much of the beautiful furniture and other priceless belongings of the nobles and pharaohs, however, were lost forever.

The archaeologists who worked in the Valley of the Nile always wished they could find a tomb that had not been robbed. What an experience it would be to see the magnificent tomb of a pharaoh just as it had been left at his burial! Always the archaeologists were disappointed in their search. Howard Car-

ter, an English archaeologist, was convinced that no trace had been found of the tomb in which Tutenkhamon had been buried. He was determined to find the tomb.

Finding the Tomb

For six long years Carter searched in the Valley of the Tombs of the Kings for some sign of the tomb of Tutenkhamon. Then, late in 1922, he dug into a hillside just below the tomb of a pharaoh who had lived and died after the time of Tutenkhamon. The diggers unearthed a stairway and a sealed doorway. There on the doorway was the seal of the Pharaoh Tutenkhamon. Here surely must be his tomb! It had been securely hidden because the workers who had built the tomb above it had dropped dirt and rocks over its entrance. Had robbers broken into it just as they had all the other tombs? Yes, there were unmistakable signs that someone had long ago tampered with the door of the tomb. Would the diggers find only an empty tomb, its contents long ago carried away by the robbers?

After breaking down the door, Carter and his companions found only stone, but beyond this first room they found another room, filled with priceless treasures. Apparently grave robbers had been there but had been frightened away. In great confusion they had left behind them gilt couches, statues, inlaid caskets, shrines, beds, alabaster vases, and chariots. In white boxes the excavators found food left for the dead pharaoh.

After more than a year of patient work the archaeologists at last reached the great stone coffin of Tutenkhamon. On the coffin the hands were crossed over the breast and held a crook and flail, which were important symbols to the Egyptians. The face was of gold, and the eyes, eyebrows, and eyelids were made of jewels. On the forehead were carved the symbols of Upper and Lower Egypt. About these symbols there was twined a little wreath of flowers, which the young queen had probably put there. Later Carter said, "Among all that regal splendor,



there was nothing so beautiful as those few withered flowers, still retaining their tinge of color. They told us what a short period three thousand three hundred years really was—but Yesterday and the Morrow.”

When the men raised the lid of the gold-plated coffin, they found still another coffin shaped to fit the pharaoh. Inside this coffin there was yet another coffin, and it was of solid gold. In-

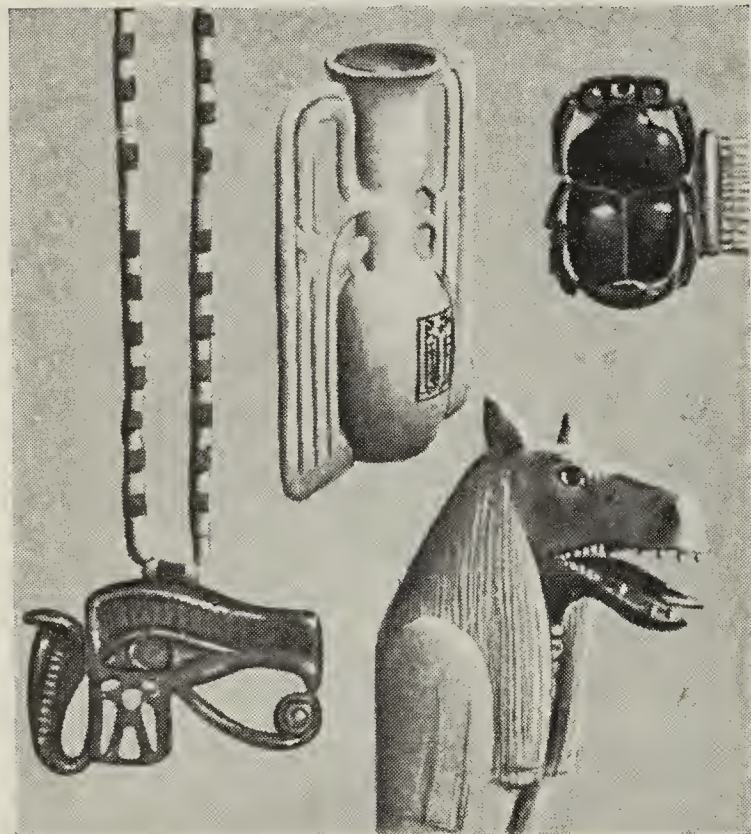
side this coffin lay the mummy of Tutenkhamon, surrounded with jewels, necklaces, breastplates of gold, bracelets, and much more. What a treasure house of Egyptian history the archaeologists had found at last!

Tutenkhamon was the last of his line of pharaohs. Another line of pharaohs came into power, but they were not strong enough to hold together the empire. In time, Egypt was conquered and ruled by foreign pharaohs, some of whom you will read about later. For more than 2,000 years Egypt has been ruled by one people after

another, the Assyrians, Persians, Greeks, Romans, Arabs, Turks, and in recent times, the British. Today Egypt is again an independent nation.

EGYPT'S GIFTS TO CIVILIZATION

The ancient Egyptians were among the first settled farmers. They learned how to irrigate their fields, how to harness animal power, and they invented the plough. They developed a system of government. The busy workers in the villages along the Nile were the first to give the world the loom, the potter's



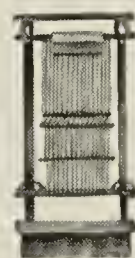
Articles taken from King "Tut's" tomb.
Can you name some of them?

wheel, the potter's furnace, metal work, glass, and paper. They built the first ships. The builders of Egypt learned to hold up roofs with walls and columns, and they were able to move heavy blocks of stone. The Egyptians were probably the first people to invent a calendar. They worked out a system of writing. Many of our ways of living today had their beginning in ancient Egypt on the banks of the Nile.

THINGS TO DO

I. QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS. During your study of "Pyramids, Temples, and Tombs" find the answers to these questions and others your teacher may ask.

1. When were the great pyramids of ancient Egypt built? What kinds of work did the builders of the pyramids know how to do?
2. Why did the pharaohs and nobles of ancient Egypt have pictures painted on the walls of their tombs? What do the pictures show about the kinds of work done in ancient Egypt? About ways of exchanging goods? About the homes of the nobles?
3. What was the art of the Pyramid Age like?
4. What do the papyrus rolls from the Age of the Nobles tell about the literature and knowledge of ancient Egypt?
5. How did the Egyptians find out about horses?
6. When Egypt became an empire, how far did her rule extend?
7. What were the religious ideas of the pharaoh Ikhaton?
8. Why do we know more about the young pharaoh Tutenkhamon than we do about the mightiest pharaohs of ancient Egypt?
9. What important gifts have come to the world from ancient Egypt?



- II. HISTORY DEFINITIONS AND NEW WORDS. In your notebook write definitions for these expressions about ancient Egypt.

Pyramid of Khufu

Valley of the Kings

the Pyramid Age

census lists

the Age of the Nobles

the Empire of Egypt

flail

Temple of Karnak

the Cliff Tombs

obelisk

City of the Dead

archer

- III. STRANGE HISTORY BOOKS. You are learning the story of ancient Egypt from a history book. Before it could be written, scholars had to unravel the story from other kinds of history books. Make a list of all the things discovered about ancient Egypt that might be called "history books." Do not forget the Rosetta Stone!

- IV. A MONUMENT. The pharaohs and nobles built great monuments to their own glory and wanted to be remembered by their "grave stones." Think over the accomplishments of the Egyptian workers and thinkers. On a piece of notebook paper draw a large grave stone. On it print the achievements of the Egyptian people that you feel are important. Choose one monument to go on the bulletin board and another in the Class Book.

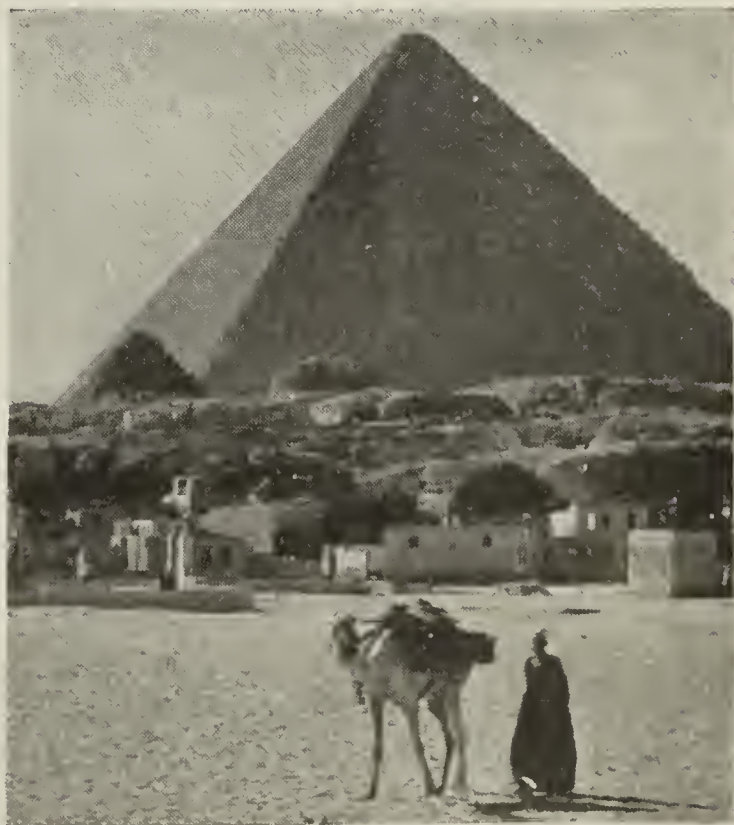
- V. FOR YOUR MUSEUM. For your museum you will want to make models of the Pyramid of Khufu, the Sphinx, an obelisk, an Egyptian coffin, and any other things your class may decide on to show life in ancient Egypt. The pictures in this book will help you in making your models.

- VI. FOR THE COSTUME BOOK AND THE BOOK OF HOMES. For the Egyptian section of your *Costume Book* you

will probably want to include pictures of a slave, a craftsman, a scribe, a wealthy noble, a wealthy woman, and a pharaoh and his queen. In your Book of Homes put pictures of a village hut, a nobleman's villa, and homes for the dead.

VII. AN EGYPTIAN PICTURE BOOK. Appoint a committee to take charge of making a "papyrus" scroll that tells in pictures the story of some of the ways of living in ancient Egypt. To make this scroll cut and paste together long strips of wrapping paper. Have a class discussion to decide what ideas you want to put on the scroll. Assign the topics to be drawn to different pupils. Use the Egyptian style of art, if you wish. It may be necessary to draw several pictures about each topic to tell the whole story. Display the scroll around the walls of your classroom. After you have finished the work of this unit, roll up the scroll and put it in your class library or museum.

VIII. EGYPT TODAY. What reminders of Ancient Times do you find in this picture of Egypt today? By consulting geographies, encyclopedias, and current-events papers, find out all you can about Egypt today: the people and their work, their religion, their schools, and their government.



Charles Phelps Cushing



Chapter 7

Civilization in the Fertile Crescent

The desert which covers much of northern Africa extends eastward into southwestern Asia. A half circle of fertile land stretches through the desert, from the Mediterranean Sea on the west to the Tigris River on the east. This half circle of rich land is often called the Fertile Crescent. There are mountains north of the Fertile Crescent, and south of it stretches the wide and long desert of Arabia. Down from the mountains flow two important rivers, the Tigris (tī'grīs) and the Euphrates (ū·frā'tēz), which enrich the land for growing crops and raising cattle. Look at the map of the Fertile Crescent on page 106.

Many thousands of years ago the head of the Persian Gulf was probably just south of the mountains. As the last Ice Age melted, the rivers and the plain between them were slowly formed, and the head of the Persian Gulf was pushed farther and farther south. In this warm, fertile valley New Stone Age people slowly began to build up a civilization at about the same time that Egyptian civilization was starting in the Nile Valley.

Many groups of people tried to find homes in the Fertile Crescent. From the southern deserts came nomads called Sem-

ites (sēm'ites). From the northern hills and mountains came tribesmen whose ancestors had probably lived near the Caspian Sea. We call the people who long ago came from near the Caspian Sea, Indo-Europeans. As their name shows, the Indo-Europeans spread into India and into Europe. Indo-Europeans also spread into southwestern Asia.

Because so many groups of people fought their way into the Fertile Crescent, civilization did not develop so easily there as it did in Egypt. In spite of much fighting, the different groups of people learned much from each other. They made some very important contributions to our civilization.

BABYLONIAN CIVILIZATION

After a long time the land between the Tigris and Euphrates rivers was called Babylonia, and its chief city was Babylon. By 4000 B.C. there was already an interesting civilization in the land between the Two Rivers. The people knew how to irrigate their fields of wheat and barley. They depended on cattle, sheep, and goats for their meat. The cow was so important to them that they gave one of their goddesses the form of a cow. They used oxen to draw their crude ploughs. Their tools were made mostly of stone, such as their Stone Age ancestors had used, but they used some copper. Later on, the Babylonian workers learned how to mix a little tin with their copper. Thus they made bronze, which is harder and stronger than copper.

Wheels and Trade

So far as we know, it was people living in the Tigris-Euphrates Valley who first invented the wheel. Perhaps some clever person learned to roll heavy loads on logs. Then, later, someone had the idea of cutting slices from a log. These log slices were put on the ends of a short, strong pole, and the heavy load was balanced on the pole between the log slices, or "wheels." Later, men learned to make a little platform between

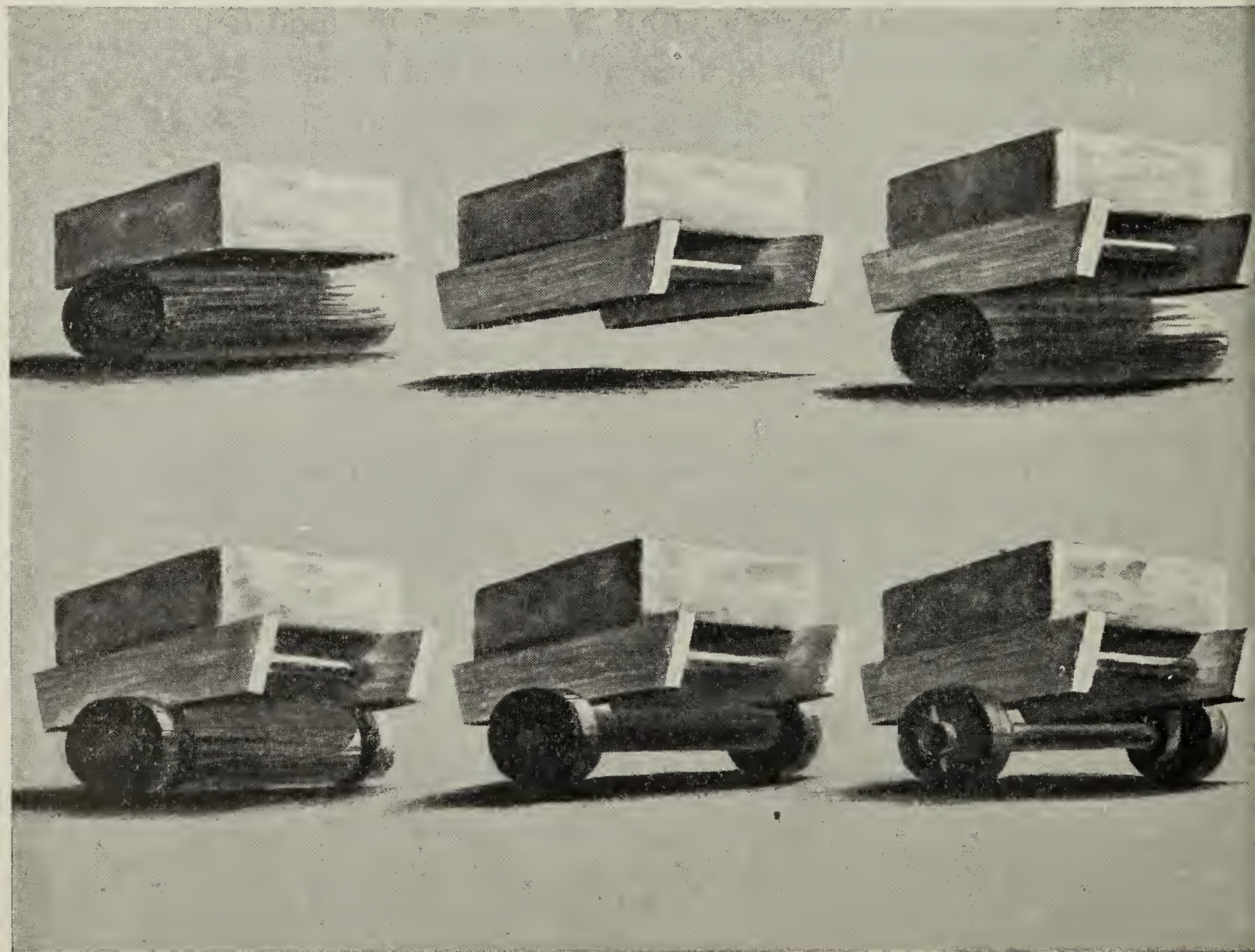
the wheels. Slowly they improved the platform and it became a cart. Those crude, heavy wheels of long ago were the ancestors of all the kinds of wheels we use today.

The people of Babylonia became very good traders. They carried dates, grain, woolen cloth, and metal work to their neighbors throughout southwestern Asia, to Egypt, and to the islands in the Mediterranean Sea. Their traders went as far east as the Indus (in'dūs) River in India, where another civilization was developing.

Measuring and Counting

Long before there was a Babylonia, the people living in the Fertile Crescent had learned how to make a calendar. Like the early Egyptians, they used the moon month, but did not manage to work out so good a calendar as the Egyptians did. The Babylonians learned how to tell time with the help of sundials

Perhaps the idea of the wheel grew this way.

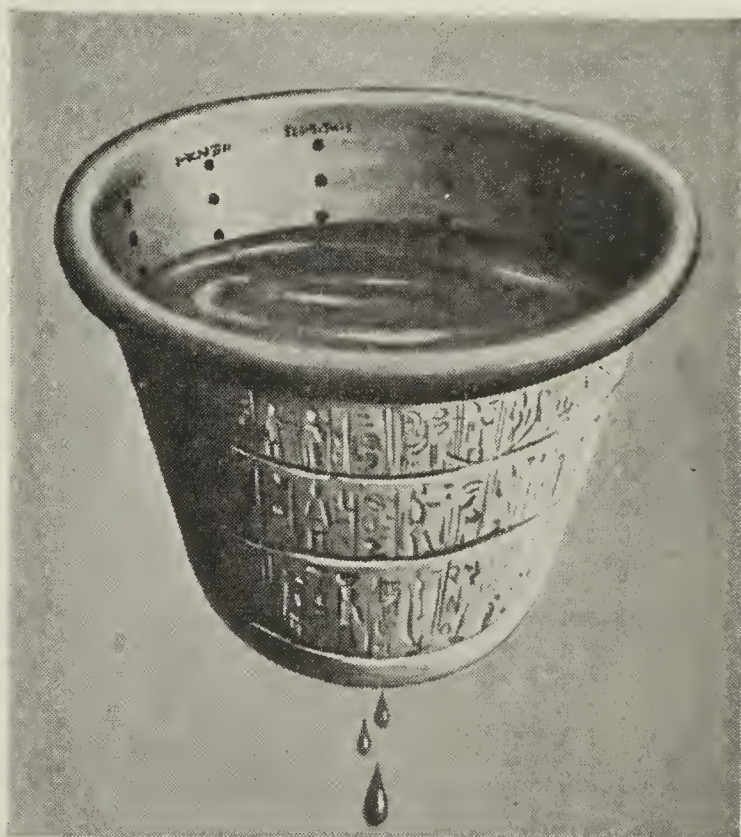


and water clocks. To make a sundial, they placed a bar on a carefully marked circle. From the shadow made by the bar, they could tell time. On cloudy days and at night, however, the sundial was no good for telling time. To solve this difficulty, the Babylonians made a water clock by placing one jar above another jar. They made a small hole in the upper jar through which water slowly dripped into the lower jar. Sundials and water clocks were not very accurate timepieces, but they were the ancestors of the clocks and watches we have today.

For a long time, of course, people had crude ways of measuring length and weight and area. A trader probably measured cloth by the length of his foot, his hand, his thumb, or his arm. But not all feet, hands, thumbs, and arms are the same length. At last in Babylonia the king ordered that rulers should be made of exactly the length he

decided. Then for all traders the measures would always be the same. The king also commanded how wine and wheat and land and many other things should be measured. It was a great help to all sellers and buyers when measures were made the same, or *standard*, as we say today. It is from ancient Babylonia that we get our ideas of the foot, the pound, and many other measures that we use every day.

From ancient Babylonia we also get some of our ideas in counting. In the land between the Two Rivers people did much of their counting by 12's and by 60's. They also knew how to count by 10's, 100's, and 1000's, as we do. Instead of saying 120, however, they would say "two sixties." We have inherited

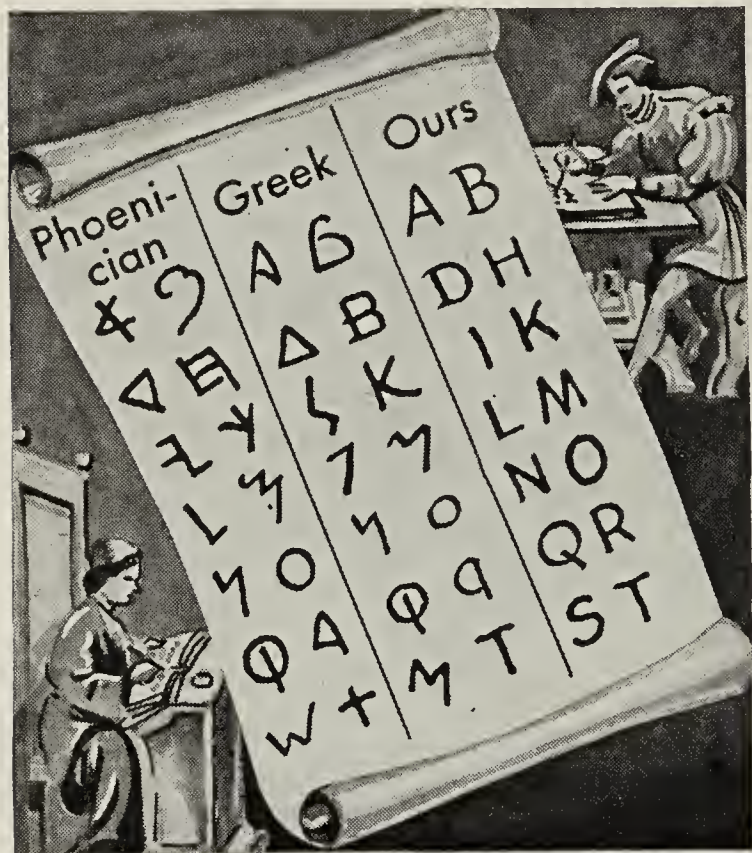


This is the upper part of a water clock.

our hour of sixty minutes and our minute of sixty seconds from the old Babylonian way of counting.

Cuneiform Writing

Busy traders in the Tigris-Euphrates Valley had to find ways of keeping records as well as ways of measuring and counting.



Can you see how we got our alphabet?

They did not invent a kind of paper as the Egyptians did, but used the soft clay they found in their river valley. On flat pieces of clay they scratched pictures with a pointed reed or bone, called a "stylus." As time went on, the picture-writing became wedge-shaped signs, which we call "cuneiform" (kū·nē'ī·form). Cuneiform comes from the Latin word *cuneus*, which means "wedge." The scribes who used cuneiform writing had to learn more than 560 signs, for they never worked out an alphabet.

The Babylonians set up schools to train the scribes and clerks. In these schools the boys and girls sat on the floor at the feet of their teacher. When he asked a question, all the pupils answered together. The most important subject in a Babylonian school was, of course, cuneiform writing. From a jar each pupil took pieces of wet clay and patted them flat. Then, sitting cross-legged on the floor, the youngest pupils copied the wedges and signs the teacher had written on his clay tablet.

The older pupils in the school wrote words and sentences from memory. Learning the many cuneiform signs was not as simple as learning our writing of today. Recently archaeologists unearthed a Babylonian schoolhouse. On a tablet found in this

schoolhouse of 4000 years ago they read this saying, "He who shall excel in tablet-writing shall shine like the sun."

The First Code of Laws

Shortly after 2000 B.C. there arose in Babylonia a powerful and wise king named Hammurabi (häm'öö·rä'bē). Because Babylonia was made up of a great mixture of people, there was much confusion about which laws should be obeyed. Hammurabi saw how important it was to have all the people obey the same laws. He collected the old laws and customs and arranged them in an orderly system. He threw out some of the old laws, changed some of the laws, and added new ones wherever necessary. Hammurabi's collection is the oldest code of laws that has so far been found.

Hammurabi had his collection, or code, of laws carved on a shaft of stone. At the top of the shaft the sculptor carved a picture of Hammurabi receiving the code of laws from the Babylonian god, Marduk (mar'döök), the sun-god. Then the code was set up in the temple of Marduk in Babylon, where all who worshipped could see it. Throughout Babylonia Hammurabi ordered that his men should set up tall stone tablets with the laws carved on them so that all the people could know the laws.



SOME SMALL NATIONS IN WESTERN ASIA

Shortly after Hammurabi's death, Babylonian civilization declined. Almost a thousand years were to pass before very much progress was to take place in the eastern part of the Fertile Crescent. But in the western part of the Fertile Crescent there were other people who were doing important things.

The Hittites

Among the earliest civilized people in the western part of the Fertile Crescent were the Hittites (hīt'its). They built up a powerful empire in the north central part of Asia Minor, that

part of Asia which lies between the Black Sea and the Mediterranean Sea. The Hittites are important to us chiefly because they were among the earliest people to make iron.

Negro tribes living in several parts of Africa probably had learned to make iron even before the Hittites, but it was from the Hittites that the people of southwestern Asia, Egypt, and Europe received this important metal. If we wished to divide history into a metal calendar, we might say that the Copper Age lasted from about 4000 to 2000 B.C., the Bronze Age from about 2000 to 1000 B.C., and the Iron Age from about 1000 B.C. to our own time. The "metal ages" of history are very short compared with the thousands and thousands of years of the Stone Age.

After the decline of the Hittite power, there arose in Asia Minor another small nation called Lydia. Her merchants learned to coin money. Exchanging goods for money was much easier

Phoenician traders sailed their ships all around the Mediterranean Sea. What is



than trading by barter. Lydia had so much trade that she became a rich little nation. Her most famous king was Croesus (krē'sūs), and we often use the expression "rich as Croesus" when we want to describe a very wealthy person. Lydia's neighbors soon learned how easy it was to trade with money.

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The Phoenicians

On the east coast of the Mediterranean, the Phoenicians (fē·nīsh'ī·ans), a group of Semites, built prosperous seaports. The most important seaports of the Phoenicians were Tyre and Sidon. From the Egyptians the Phoenicians learned a great deal about making cloth, metal goods, and glassware. They were especially famous for their purple dyes. The Phoenicians became busy traders and started colonies all around the Mediterranean Sea. Their most famous colony was Carthage, in Africa.

The Phoenicians never brought their cities under one governing place at this busy trading port? What countries do the people come from?





ernment. It was through their peaceful trading and settling that they made their contributions to mankind. The Phoenicians are especially important to us because it is through them that we received the *alphabet*. The Phoenicians, being such busy traders, were quick to copy and improve the ways of writing of their neighbors. The Phoenicians arranged the twenty-two letters of their writing system in a certain order. The first two symbols they used were *aleph* and *beth*. From these two symbols we get the word “alphabet.” Look at the picture on page 100.

The Arameans

Another peaceful people who lived near the western end of the Fertile Crescent were the Arameans (ăř’ă·mē’ăns), or Syrians. Their most important city was Damascus. The Arameans were located at the head of the caravan route to Babylonia, and they became great traders throughout southwestern Asia. Their scribes and businessmen quickly took up the new alphabet, which was so much easier to use than the old cuneiform writing. Wherever their heavily laden caravans went, the Arameans spread the new, simpler alphabet, even as far east as India.

The Arameans never became a large, powerful nation, but their language became the general language throughout the Fertile Crescent. Aramaic (ăř’ă·mă’ic) was the general language of the Fertile Crescent until Greek took its place. When Jesus, a Jewish boy, was growing up in Palestine, it was Aramaic that he spoke and not the Hebrew of his forefathers.

THE HEBREWS

Another important small nation at the western end of the Fertile Crescent in Ancient Times was that of the Hebrews. The Hebrews are also called Israelites or Jews. In the rich and stately language of the *Bible* we can read the story of this small nation which occupied Palestine, a land about the size of our state of Vermont.

Early History of the Hebrews

The Hebrews were probably made up of a mixture of people who lived in and around the Fertile Crescent. According to their history as told in the *Bible*, their ancestor was Abraham, a nomad leader. For hundreds of years they wandered in search of a homeland, and then drifted into Palestine. Palestine often became the battleground of strong neighboring nations. The Hebrews seldom enjoyed many years of peace.

Some of the Hebrews had been made slaves by the Egyptians. In Egypt they had to work hard for the pharaoh and his people. A Hebrew boy by the name of Moses grew up in the home of the pharaoh's daughter. When Moses saw how badly the Egyptians treated the Hebrews, he became determined to lead his people out of Egypt. While the Hebrews were wandering in the desert for many years, Moses gave them the Ten Commandments. Among the Ten Commandments are such wise rules as, "Honor thy father and thy mother," and "Thou shalt not covet."

The Philistines (fĭ·lĭs'tēns) were among the neighbors who troubled the Hebrews. They came from the shores of Asia Minor and Crete. When the Philistines tried to drive the Hebrews into the hills, a daring young man named David came to their rescue. He made the Hebrew capital, Jerusalem, strong and he drove out the Philistines. Long afterwards the Hebrews looked upon David as the author of many of their religious songs, or psalms. The Psalms are among the world's most beautiful literature.

Solomon, David's son, built a magnificent stone temple to take the place of the simple tent the Hebrews had used as their temple. When he died, the northern tribes set up a kingdom of their own, and so the Hebrew nation was divided into two kingdoms. The northern kingdom was called Israel and the southern kingdom was called Judah.

In 722 B.C. the Assyrians, of whom we shall tell in the next section, put an end to the kingdom of Israel. In 586 B.C. the Chaldeans (kāl·dē'ans) from Babylonia destroyed Jerusalem and carried off many of the Jews to Babylon. About fifty years later those Jews who wished to were allowed to return to their land, and they rebuilt the temple at Jerusalem. In 70 A.D., when the Romans were ruling all the lands around the Mediterranean, Jerusalem was destroyed again.

Religion of the Ancient Hebrews

The great gift of the ancient Hebrews to the world was their religion and the literature which expressed that religion. In the beginning, the Hebrews believed in many gods, very much as did their neighbors. Slowly they came to believe in one god, Yahweh (yā'wě). But they believed that Yahweh was the stern, warlike god of their people alone. Such inspiring Hebrew leaders as Amos, Isaiah, and Hosea began to teach that Yahweh, the Hebrew God, was a loving Father and that He was the only true God of all the world. The Hebrews also came to believe that a Messiah, or Saviour, would come and greatly improve life for them.

When the Jews were in captivity in Babylonia, they began to gather together the papyrus rolls containing the old Hebrew



writings and the addresses and orations of their religious leaders. They used the alphabet they had learned from the Phoenicians and the Arameans. For a long time these scrolls were separate "books." Later the writings were put into one book. They are the *Bible* of the Jews today.

THE ASSYRIANS

By 700 B.C. a people called the Assyrians had become very powerful in the Fertile Crescent. They had started as a small country north of Babylonia on the Tigris River. For many hundreds of years they had struggled against the Babylonians and the Hittites. Their experiences made them strong and ruthless soldiers. The Assyrians completely destroyed the city of Babylon.

The Assyrians were successful fighters because they had a well-trained army and fought with iron weapons. Another reason for the success of the Assyrians was their horrible cruelty. There have been few periods in history when such terrible massacres and such complete destruction have been carried out by armies as were ordered by the Assyrian kings and generals.

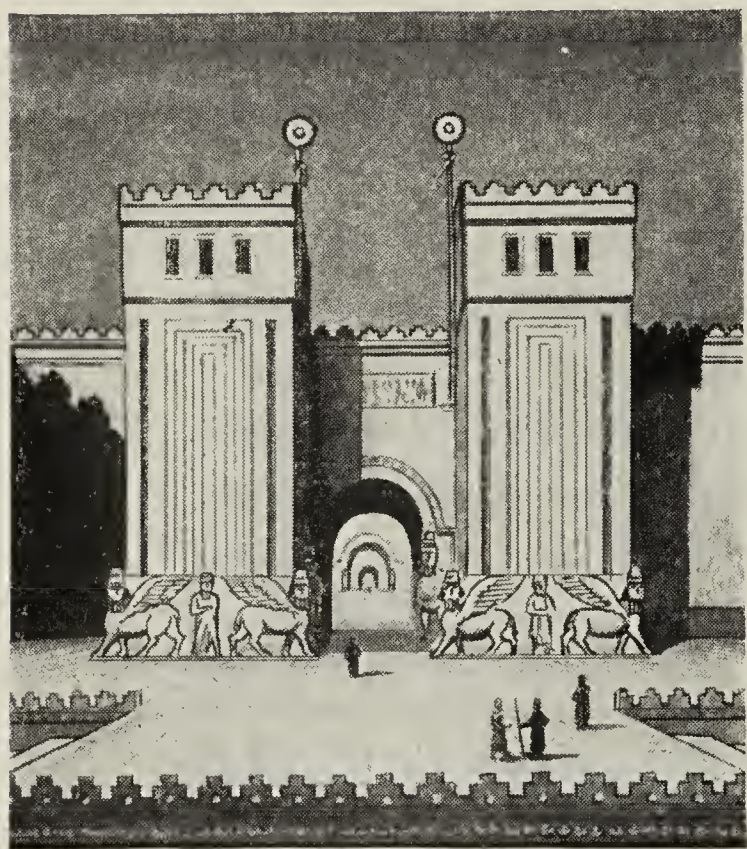
Contributions of the Assyrians

There was some good in the rule of the Assyrians, however, for they did more than fight and kill. Their rulers collected large libraries of clay tablets. They built roads, and even started a postal system to hold their empire together. The Assyrians had cotton plants brought from India and learned to make cloth from their "wool," as their old records called the cotton boll.

The first known aqueduct was built by the Assyrian kings to carry water to Nineveh (nĭn'ě·vĕ), their capital. They built magnificent palaces and great tower-temples to their gods. In building their palaces the Assyrians made much use of the arch, which they had inherited from the Babylonians. The



entrance to their palace was made of three arches covered with brilliantly colored glazed bricks. On each side of the entrance



A beautiful palace in Nineveh.

stood tremendous figures of human-headed bulls carved of alabaster. Inside sculptors made carvings along the walls, which pictured the deeds of the cruel kings.

The cruelty of the rulers finally helped make Assyria weak. In 612 B.C. another people, the Chaldeans, conquered the Assyrians. Great was the joy from the Nile River to the Caspian Sea as news spread that great Nineveh had fallen. The Hebrew prophet Nahum (nă'hŭm) exclaimed, "All that hear of thy fate smite their

hands in rejoicing." In less than two hundred years Nineveh was only a pile of rubbish, and so it is today.

THE CHALDEANS

The Chaldeans rebuilt the old destroyed city of Babylon. Across the Euphrates River they built a bridge. It is the oldest passenger bridge which the archaeologists have so far found.

The rebuilt city of Babylon, astride the Euphrates, was one of the famous sights of ancient times. To it came visitors and traders from many parts of the world. In the busy, colorful city stood the vast temple-tower of Marduk. It looked very much like a huge cube, surrounded by smaller temples and buildings. It was probably this temple which the Hebrews called the "Tower of Babel" because of the great mixture of languages they heard in noisy Babylon.

The most famous building in the new city was the vast palace

of King Nebuchadnezzar (něb'ŭ · kăd · něz'ěr), which arose high on arched terraces. On each terrace were planted masses of fernery, flowers, and trees, thus making of the palace the beautiful Hanging Gardens of Babylon.

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In the homes of the wealthy businessmen of Babylon there were beautiful furnishings, but most of the people were poor.

Babylon was one of the greatest centers of trade in ancient times. Here gathered Jewish, Aramean, Phoenician, Egyptian, Greek, and Indian merchants to exchange their wares. Some of the merchants kept records and wrote letters in the slow cuneiform way. The busy Phoenicians and Arameans used their easier alphabet to make their records and write their letters.

Chaldean Astronomy

The Chaldeans became the best astronomers up to their time in history. The people of southwestern Asia gave some of the

The palace of King Nebuchadnezzar with its Hanging Gardens.



110 heavenly bodies the names of their gods. In time, the days of the week came to be named for the heavenly bodies and for gods and goddesses. Sunday was the Sun-god's day, Monday, the Moon's day, Saturday, Saturn's day. As civilization traveled westward, the names of the gods were changed, but the custom of naming the days of the week for the gods and the heavenly bodies started back in the valley of the Two Rivers.



For more than 360 years the astronomers of the Tigris-Euphrates Valley kept very careful records, a feat which has not yet been equaled in modern times. One of the most famous astronomers of Chaldea figured that the length of the years is 365 days, 6 hours, 15 minutes, and 41 seconds. His measurement was only 26 minutes, 55 seconds too long.

THE PERSIANS

After the death of Nebuchadnezzar, Chaldean power in the Fertile Crescent declined, and the Chaldeans were conquered by a new people from the northeast, the Persians. The Persians had originally come from among the Indo-Europeans whose home was around the Caspian Sea.

Darius

Shortly after 600 B.C. a leader named Cyrus united the Persian tribes and then conquered all of the Fertile Crescent and many of its neighbors. Five years after the death of Cyrus, his son Darius (da·rī'ūs) even conquered Eyypt. Now the empire of the Persians extended from the Nile and the islands along the coast of Asia Minor almost to the Indus River.



Happily, the Persians were not such cruel, savage conquerors as were the Assyrians. Instead, they set up a remarkably well-run government throughout their empire. Their great king Darius ruled Egypt and Babylonia himself. He divided the rest of the empire into twenty provinces. At the head of each

province he placed a governor, who was responsible to him. He wisely appointed officials from among the people he conquered.

Even though Darius came from far inland, he wanted to make Persia a great sea power. He had the coast of Asia explored from the mouth of the Indus to the Isthmus of Suez. His men cleared out the canal which the Egyptians had dug long ago to connect the Nile with the Red Sea. The archaeologists have discovered inscriptions in the stones along the old canal which say, "I (Darius) commanded to dig the canal. . . . Then the canal was dug as I commanded and ships sailed from Egypt through the canal to Persia according to my will."

Darius saw to it that good roads were built to connect the parts of his empire, and he built up an excellent postal system.

OUR HERITAGE FROM EGYPT AND THE FERTILE CRESCENT

After two hundred years of prosperous rule, the Persian Empire, too, declined. We shall have to turn westward in our history to continue our story, but before doing so, let us have a look at the achievements of the ancient world from about 5000 B.C. to about 500 B.C. The ancient Egyptians gave to the world the plough, the loom, the potter's wheel, metal work, glass-making, beginnings of arithmetic, and a calendar. To these gifts of the ancient Egyptians we must add such gifts from the Fertile Crescent as the wheel, the use of money in trading, iron, the arch, the alphabet, and the belief in one God.

And what were the shortcomings of the civilizations which arose in the Valleys of the Nile and the Two Rivers? One serious fault was the fact that the people themselves had nothing to say about the way they should be governed. The idea of free citizens sharing in their government was something they never knew. Much of the religion of these people was darkened by superstition and kept men from inquiring very deeply into the natural causes of things, the way scientists do. For all the very

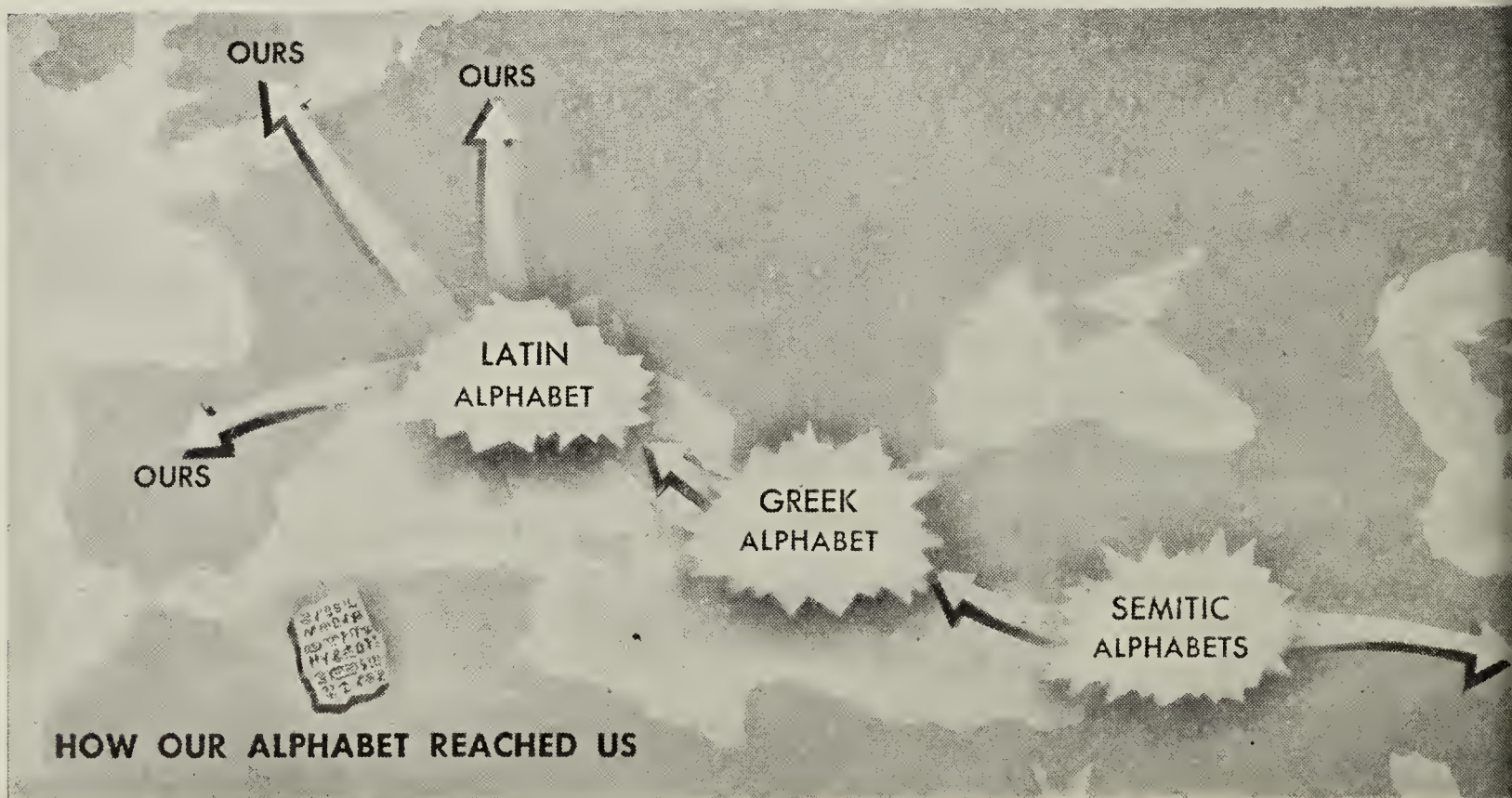


important contributions they did make, we are grateful to the dwellers in the Nile Valley and the Fertile Crescent.

THINGS TO DO

I. QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS. Have a class discussion on these questions about "Civilization in the Fertile Crescent."

1. Why was the story of civilization more warlike and mixed up in the Fertile Crescent than it was in the Valley of the Nile?
2. Why do we owe a debt to the early people of the Fertile Crescent for inventing the wheel?
3. How was writing in the Fertile Crescent different from writing in the Valley of the Nile?
4. What important ways of counting and measuring have come to us from the Fertile Crescent?
5. Why was Hammurabi's code of laws helpful to the Babylonians?
6. What was a school in Babylonia like?
7. Why was bronze a more useful metal than copper? Why was iron an improvement over bronze?
8. From whom did we get the alphabet? The idea of exchanging goods for money?



9. What great gift has come to us from the ancient Hebrews?

II. HISTORY DEFINITIONS AND NEW WORDS. Write definitions in your notebook for these expressions about Ancient Times in the Fertile Crescent.

<i>Fertile Crescent</i>	<i>nomads</i>	<i>arch</i>
<i>Bronze Age</i>	<i>cuneiform</i>	<i>Indo-Europeans</i>
<i>stylus</i>	<i>Semites</i>	<i>code of laws</i>
<i>Iron Age</i>	<i>wedge</i>	<i>caravan route</i>
	<i>aqueduct</i>	<i>postal system</i>

III. WHO'S WHO IN THE FERTILE CRESCENT. To help you remember the long and complicated history of the Fertile Crescent in Ancient Times, make a Who's Who chart for your notebook. Rule a sheet of paper with headings like those given below. Your chart will be longer than this, for you will extend your rules to the bottom of your paper. Leave nine blank vertical spaces.

Name	Approximate Dates	Important Contributions
Babylonians		
Hittites		

Add these names to those in your first column: *Lydians*, *Phoenicians*, *Arameans*, *Hebrews*, *Assyrians*, *Chaldeans*, *Persians*. Now fill in the chart.

IV. MAPS TELL THE STORY. Appoint committees to make large picture maps which will tell the story of some of the nations which were located in southwestern Asia in Ancient Times. Each committee may have to

consult encyclopedias and atlases for more information about each nation and its exact location.

- V. **FOR THE MUSEUM.** While studying about civilization in the Fertile Crescent you will want to put these models in your museum: a series of wheels to show how the wheel developed (see the picture on page 98), a sample of cuneiform writing on a clay tablet, a stylus, a Phoenician boat, Hammurabi's code of laws, the temple-tower of Marduk, the Ten Commandments, an arch.
- VI. **NEWS OF THE FERTILE CRESCENT.** Write ten headlines that tell the most important events in the Fertile Crescent from about 4000 B.C. to 500 B.C. Consult the time line on page 60 to help you. Choose the best headlines to go in your Class Book.
- VII. **A TIME LINE OF METALS.** Appoint a committee to make a time line that shows the New Stone Age, the Copper Age, the Bronze Age, and the Iron Age.
- VIII. **FOR THE BOOK OF HOMES AND THE COSTUME BOOK.** Find or draw pictures of homes in the Fertile Crescent in Ancient Times. Be sure to show the difference between the homes of the poor and the homes of the rich. Decide what people of the Fertile Crescent you wish to add to your Costume Book.
- IX. **THE FERTILE CRESCENT TODAY.** Very much as in Ancient Times you will find that the story of the Fertile Crescent today is a complicated one. Appoint committees to find out all they can about the present-day countries in the Fertile Crescent and report to the class about their ways of living.

LET'S REVIEW

- I. COMPLETING THE RECORD. Take out of your notebook all the work you have done as you have been learning about Ancient Times in Egypt and the Fertile Crescent. Arrange your papers neatly and in historical order. This will be your own record book about life in Egypt and the Fertile Crescent in Ancient Times. Make a cover for your book and fasten it together. Make a table of contents. You will want to include some of the following activities in your notebook, too.
- II. NATURE'S GIFTS HARNESSSED. Whenever men put something they found in nature to work for them they improved their ways of living. Men in Egypt and the Fertile Crescent learned to harness many things they found in the Valley of the Nile and in the Land between the Two Rivers. Make a list of nature's gifts that they put to work for them. Draw little pictures for your list.
- III. AN EXHIBIT. Give an exhibit of what your class has made while you were studying about Ancient Times in Egypt and the Fertile Crescent. Elect chairmen of committees to arrange the exhibit. Every class member should serve on a committee. Prepare talks to explain all of your activities. Invite another class in your school to come to your exhibit. The committees should be responsible for such things as the museum, the bulletin board, the charts and time lines, the Costume Book, etc.
- IV. LET'S READ OUT LOUD. Some of you will enjoy preparing selections that were written in Ancient Times to read to your classmates. Among your selections include "The Ten Commandments," "The First Psalm," and "The Twenty-third Psalm" from the *Bible*.

- V. A PARADE OF WORKERS. Appoint a committee to plan a parade of workers who lived in the Nile Valley and the Fertile Crescent in Ancient Times. First make a list of the many kinds of work that were done. Have different groups of pupils take the parts of the various workers and show who they are by the way they act and walk. You may wish to select music whose rhythm explains the kind of work.
- VI. LET'S TALK IT OVER. In class discussion talk over these questions and others your teacher may ask about the people of Egypt and the Fertile Crescent.
1. Why were the Egyptians and the people of the Fertile Crescent able to become civilized before the people who lived farther north in Europe?
 2. Why did the Phoenicians become boat builders and traders?
 3. Why did the builders of Egypt and those of the Fertile Crescent use different building materials?
 4. Why were the writing materials different in Egypt and the Fertile Crescent?
 5. If you had been a worker in ancient Egypt or in the Fertile Crescent which work would you have liked most to do?
 6. Mention five of the most important contributions that have come to us from ancient Egypt and the Fertile Crescent.
- VII. LET'S READ.
- A Child's History of the World* by V. M. Hillyer, Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc.
- Boy of Babylon* by Francis K. Gere, Longmans, Green & Co.
- Boy of the Pyramids* by Ruth F. Jones, Random House

Builders of the Old World by Gertrude Hartman and Lucy S. Saunders, Little, Brown and Company 117
The Gift of the River by Enid La Monte Meadowcroft, Thomas Y. Crowell Company
In Bible Days by Gertrude Hartman, The Macmillan Company
Lost Worlds by Anne Terry White, Random House

VIII. A MATCHING TEST. Copy the list of words in Column I on a sheet of paper. Hunt for the words in Column II which match the words in the first column and put the correct letters beside the words in Column I.

Column I

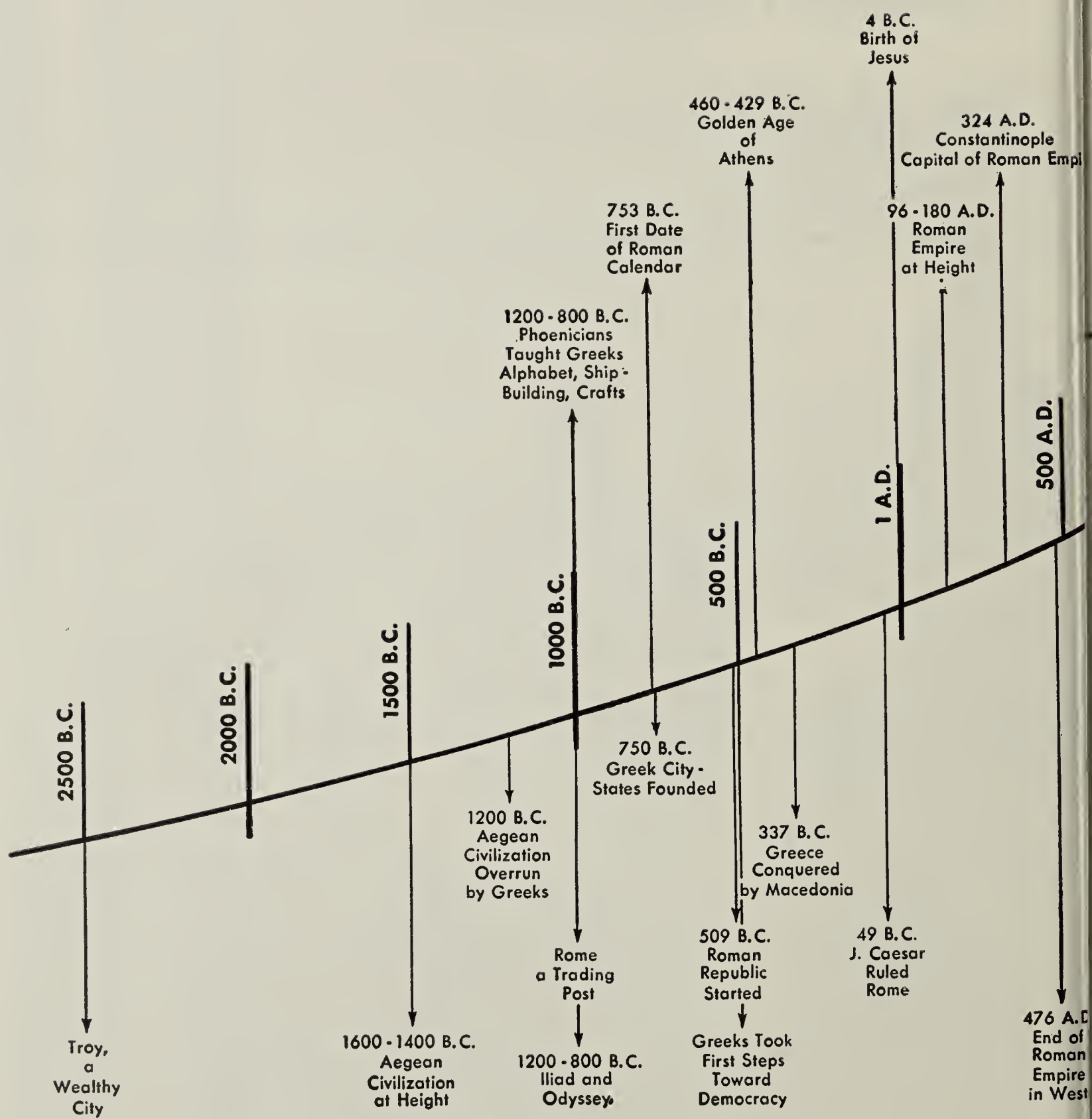
Column II

- | | |
|---------------------------|--|
| 1. Rosetta Stone | a. Egyptian paper |
| 2. The "gift of the Nile" | b. Babylonian writing |
| 3. shadoof | c. a kind of grain |
| 4. millet | d. the time of year when the Nile overflowed |
| 5. papyrus | e. Egypt |
| 6. Inundation | f. the sun-god |
| 7. Re | g. people who conquered Egypt |
| 8. Hyksos | h. a slab of stone |
| 9. standard | i. the same |
| 10. cuneiform | j. an Egyptian pump |
| | k. Hebrew temple |
| | l. the Fertile Crescent |

Unit 3



Ancient Times Around the Mediterranean Sea





Chapter 8

The Greeks

When Henry Schliemann (shlē'män) was a little boy living in a village in Germany, his father told him some stories about the ancient Greeks. One was a story of how the Greeks besieged the city of Troy across the Aegean (ē·jē'än) Sea on the shore of Asia Minor. The walls of Troy were so strong that after ten years of fighting, the Trojans were still safe behind them. But the Greeks were bound they would not go away defeated, so they thought of a way to trick the Trojans.

The Greeks built a large wooden horse and stood it near one of the gates of the city of Troy. The Trojans thought that the horse was a god and took it into their city. The Trojans had done just what the Greeks wanted them to do. That night when the people of Troy were asleep, a number of Greek soldiers crept out of a secret door in the wooden horse. They opened the city gate to let in their fellow soldiers and captured the city.

When Henry Schliemann asked where the city of Troy was, his father told him that no one knew, for the city had disappeared. Henry did not understand how such strong walls could disappear, and he decided that some day he was going to look for them.



THE SEARCH FOR THE CITY OF TROY

By 1870 Henry Schliemann had earned and saved enough money with which to search for the walls of Troy. First of all, he had to buy a little village located on a large mound, where he thought Troy might have stood. Then he and his helpers began to explore the secrets of the mound. Their explorations continued for more than twenty years. Within the mound the excavators found the remains of nine cities built one upon the other. From the ruins of each city, they could tell what kind of people had lived there.

Within the towered gateway of the second city Schliemann found a great deal of golden jewelry and he thought this must be the ancient ruins of Troy. But he was mistaken, for later archaeologists found that the sixth layer contained the remains of the city of Troy. Nevertheless, Schliemann did not know his mistake and thought his fond dream had come true.

AEGEAN CIVILIZATION



And who were the people who had built Troy, the city it took the Greeks ten years to capture? Archaeologists think the Trojans belonged to the people who had helped build Aegean civilization. Aegean civilization gets its name from the Aegean Sea. The Aegean Sea is like a great bay of the Mediterranean Sea. It is covered with hundreds of small islands. The Aegean Sea reaches to Asia Minor on the east and the Greek peninsula on the west. Troy was only one of the many cities that were flourishing during the Aegean Age, which archaeologists date from about 3000 B.C. to 1200 B.C. See the map on page 125.

Civilization on the Island of Crete

The more Schliemann and other archaeologists dug among the ancient cities of the Aegean, the more convinced they became that the center of Aegean civilization had been on the

island of Crete. Crete stretches along the south entrance to the Aegean Sea like a large steppingstone between Egypt and Greece. Its south side faces Egypt, and we know that the ancient Egyptians traded with Crete. One of the earliest things found on the island of Crete is an old copper ax from Egypt.

At Cnossus (nōs'ūs), on the island of Crete, there was a huge and wonderful palace. There the king and his household enjoyed many comforts that sound very modern. There were baths, hot and cold water, and a sewage system. The women of the palace also looked very "modern" in their flounced gowns, pinched-in waists, and carefully curled hair. The men, however, were not so smartly dressed, for they went about bare to the waist and wore loincloths and high boots.

The people of the Aegean Age were great traders. Their boats sailed to Egypt, to the Fertile Crescent, to the islands of the Aegean Sea, and westward to Italy. Either the people of

Aegean ways of living spread to distant cities like this one.



Crete founded such cities as Troy, on the shores of Asia Minor, and Mycenae (mī·sē'nē) in Greece, or the people in these cities took on the ways of living of the people of Crete. Among the Aegean ruins the archaeologists have found amber from northern Europe and white jade that must have come from far-off China. In some way the Aegean people had worked out trade connections hundreds and even thousands of miles away from Cnossus and Troy and Mycenae.

The Aegeans wrote on clay tablets, but as yet the archaeologists have not been able to decipher their writing. Archaeologists hope that some day a "key" will be found that will be to Aegean civilization what the Rosetta Stone is to ancient Egyptian civilization. Until that time, many of the secrets of Aegean civilization must remain locked in the little clay tablets.

The Greeks Overran Aegean Civilization



What brought to an end the gay and colorful civilization of the Aegean Age? No one knows for certain, but it is thought that Indo-European barbarians pushed into the Greek Peninsula and conquered the Aegean cities. These new peoples were later called Greeks. By 1200 B.C. they had conquered the Aegean region, including the island of Crete. In time, dust and debris covered the cities and palaces that the people of the Aegean Age had built. Through the conquest, however, the Greeks learned about Aegean ways of living. In turn, the Greeks built up one of the finest civilizations the world has ever known. Crete, the "steppingstone" to the mainland of Europe, helped to lay the foundation of that civilization.

THE EARLY GREEKS

The Greeks liked the sunny hillsides in the eastern Mediterranean which they had seized from the Aegeans. Here they grazed their sheep on the hundreds of islands that dot the Aegean Sea, on the shores of Asia Minor, and especially on the

southern part of the long Balkan Peninsula, which we today call "Greece." The shepherds called themselves "Hellenes" and their land "Hellas" (hěl'ās). Much later the Romans called them "Greeks."

Gradually the Greek nomad tribes gave up roaming and plundering. They settled down with their herds. They built homes, and some of them began to farm the soil. They married the conquered Aegeans, who could not flee before their raids. Little by little they learned to make pottery and cloth and to work metal. The Aegeans were workers in bronze. The Greeks, however, learned to use iron.

The Greeks Learned Much from the Phoenicians

By 1000 B.C. the trading ships of Phoenician merchants were sailing into the Greek ports. The Greek shepherds and farmers were eager to exchange their grain, olive oil, wool, and

Aegean civilization spread from the island of Crete to Asia Minor and Greece.



skins for the glass, porcelain, purple cloth, furniture, and metal dishes of the Phoenicians. Little by little Greek craftsmen learned to make wares even lovelier than the Phoenician ones they copied.



Warriors painted on a beautiful Greek vase. What weapons do you see?

The soil in Greece is thin. Farming was not easy in this rocky land. The sea beckoned to the Greeks. Many of them gave up farming. They copied the Phoenician ships and became traders. They carried their goods throughout the Mediterranean, even to the Gates of Hercules, which we now call Gibraltar.

For some reason the Greeks did not learn to use written symbols from the Aegeans, and so the Aegean language and writing died.

The Greek traders began to use the Phoenician alphabet, because they needed an easy way to keep track of their sales. The Greeks improved the alphabet by adding vowel sounds to suit the Greek language. With the alphabet, the Greeks borrowed the Phoenician materials to write it. A kind of pen and ink and great quantities of papyrus were brought to Greece to keep records of bills of sale. In the course of time the use of the alphabet spread from business to the writing down of stories, thoughts, and ideas.

The Tales of Greek Warriors

The Greeks loved to tell stories about the brave deeds of their warriors in the days when they were conquering Greece and the islands of the Aegean. Storytellers, called bards, wove the stories into two long poems, the *Iliad* (il'ī·ăd) and the *Odyssey*

(ōd'i·sī). The later Greeks gave the name "Homer" to the author of the hero tales. "Homer," however, was probably one of many Greek storytellers who lived between 1200 B.C. and 800 B.C. Many years after the Greeks had learned about the alphabet they wrote down the *Iliad* and *Odyssey*. They became sacred books to the Greeks, who read and believed them. These were among the first great poems ever written. To this day, even though we know they are not true, these stories are read and enjoyed all over the world.

THE GREEK CITY-STATES

The many mountain ranges in Greece were barriers that separated the early settlements from one another. As trade increased, busy little cities grew up around hills, which were fortified to protect the people during the almost constant warfare. Bands of warriors took on the job of battle, while craftsmen worked in their shops with their nimble fingers, and farmers and herdsman raised the food to feed all the people.

The Greek word for city is *polis*. The armed hill in the center of the city was known as the *acropolis* (ă·krōp'ō·līs), or high city. To the acropolis came the people of the neighborhood in time of danger. On the acropolis they built the temple where



they worshiped the god or goddess of their city. Each city with its surrounding countryside was a *city-state*. In time there were as many as a thousand Greek city-states in the ancient world.

Each city-state developed its own way of thinking and doing things. Each had its own government. Each Greek had a fierce love for his own city-state and thought it the best in the world. He was proud of the achievements of his city-state in war and in peace. He was loyal to it and ready to give his life for it.

The city-states were jealous of one another and often waged war among themselves. They spoke the same language, worshiped many of the same gods, listened to the same stories told by their bards, and every four years came together for games and contests of strength. In spite of this, they never managed to join together and form one government of all the Greeks. In many important matters they could never agree and were so independent that they never were able to unite. Corinth, Sparta, Thebes, and Athens were only a few of the city-states on the mainland of Greece. The two greatest rivals were Sparta and Athens.

Sparta

Sparta was built on flat land, on a river. Because she had no acropolis, she was forced to train all her citizens to become warriors to defend the city-state. The main business of Sparta was fighting. The Spartans made slaves of the people they conquered and forced them to raise the food and do the work while the Spartans prepared for war.

Spartan men spent almost no time in their simple homes. As soldiers, they lived together and ate their meals in warrior companies. When they were not away at battle, they were training their bodies so that they could stand the extreme pain and hardship of war. They so despised weaklings that they left sick or injured babies to die on the mountainside. Boys were taken

from home when only seven years old to begin the stern training that made them into fearless soldiers.

Spartan women were as harsh as the men. It was the custom in Ancient Times for the victors to take away the armor of the conquered. It was considered a great disgrace to lose a shield. Those who died bravely in battle were carried home proudly on their shields. As a Spartan mother sent her son to battle she sternly told him, "Come home with your shield, or on it." The Spartan way of living made good soldiers, but not thinkers and artists. Sparta hated Athens, where life was very different.

Athens

Athens, along with Corinth, became famous for its trade. The city grew rich. In the *agora* (ăg'ō·ră), or market place, business was carried on. Honey, goats' milk, and wine were offered for sale in the agora. In one section of the city the potters made their beautiful vases. On other narrow streets furnituremakers, metal-smiths, weavers, sculptors, painters, and shipbuilders were busy at their trades.

The Athenians loved to gather in the market place and talk over the news of their city-state. They found time to admire the beauty created by the Greek artists. Wars were not fought just for the love of fighting, but as a means to increase the wealth of the city-state.

Captured slaves were taught to work in the workshops to make goods for the traders. On the Acropolis appeared statues and temples to the gods. In time, Athens became the most



Wrestlers as they appear on a Greek vase, a reminder of Greek ways of living.

beautiful city, not only in Greece, but in the entire ancient world.

Athenians liked to change things for the better. They welcomed new ideas and tried them out in architecture, in the theater, in science, and in ways of thinking. They thought the Spartans backward and crude. Conservative Sparta and progressive Athens did not agree about ways of living and had frequent quarrels with each other.

The Greeks Learned to Govern Themselves

It had been the custom since the beginning of civilized times for kings to make the laws and govern as they thought wise. Even if the people were cruelly treated, they never found the way to get rid of the kings. But the Greeks worked out a plan to improve the way they were governed.

Powerful Greek nobles became dissatisfied with the early kings. They banded together and with their warriors did away with kings about 650 B.C. They took things in their own hands and started to rule the city-states. The nobles called meetings of the citizens and gave them a share in the government.

Sometimes a noble grew so powerful that he set himself up as the head of a city-state. The Greeks called these rulers tyrants. Some of the tyrants were just rulers, but the independent Greeks did not like the idea of one man having so much power. In time the city-states got rid of the tyrants and learned to govern themselves. A government in which the people have a share is called a *democracy*, from the Greek word *demos*, which means people, and the word *kratos*, which means power. *The Greeks were the first people to try the ways of democracy.*

Athens threw off rule by tyrants a little before 500 B.C. and became the greatest of all the Greek democracies. There the citizens met in an *assembly* on a hillside. The assembly made the laws, decided what taxes should be paid, and elected officers to run the city-state. All the citizens could attend the assembly and

speaking their minds. The members of the assembly listened carefully to each speaker. Then they voted to decide on questions or problems that had to be settled.

The democracy of ancient Athens was the pattern for our government today. The Greeks, however, took only the first steps in a government by the people and for the people. There were two classes of people in the city-states: those who were citizens and those who were not. Slaves, peasant farmers, and "outlanders" were not given the right of citizenship. The laws protected only the citizens. Citizens from one city-state had no privileges in another.

Compared with the many people who were not citizens, the number of citizens in a city-state was small. Greek democracy was really a government of the people by a privileged group of men. They did not work out a way for everyone to become a citizen and have a part in the government. Their new government was, however, a great step forward in ways of living in Ancient Times. It set an example for others to follow.



The Athenian Assembly was an important step toward a democracy.

Greek Gods

Like other people of the ancient world, the Greeks had many gods. The Greeks thought their gods were people, only nobler and more powerful than human beings. The gods were believed to dwell amidst the clouds on the top of Mount Olympus. Like men, they were jealous of each other and often quarreled. They played tricks on men to amuse themselves, and sometimes came

132 down to earth to interfere with humans. Unlike men, the gods never died, but lived forever. The Greeks worshiped all the gods because they were afraid to offend any of them. Each city,



An altar to the goddess of the home.

each craftsman and trader had, however, his own particular god or goddess to whom he prayed for protection.

Zeus (zūs), the chief of the gods, ruled over the sky and the earth with his wife Hera (hē'rà) as his queen. Poseidon (pō·sī'dōn), god of the sea, stirred up storms or calmed the angry waters to help or harm the sailors as they journeyed over his realm. Pluto was king of the underworld where the spirits of men wandered after they were dead.

Apollo, mighty god of the sun, drove his chariot across the sky each day to light the earth and keep it warm. He was a great archer. The sunbeams were golden arrows shot from his great bow. He was very wise and could see far into the future. Before taking important steps, every Greek prayed to Apollo to guide him.

The earth goddess was Demeter (dě·mē'tēr). She made the earth give a rich harvest after Zeus sent the rain to water the crops. Hermes (hûr'mēz) was the crafty messenger of the gods. He traveled in the wind with wings on his cap and feet. Aphrodite (af·rō·dī'tē) was the goddess of love and beauty. Sculptors liked to picture her in the form of a beautiful woman.

Athena (à·thē'nà) was the goddess of wisdom. The Athenians chose her as their goddess and named Athens in her honor. Every four years they held a festival to please her. For seven days they had races and games to show the strength of young

Athenians. On the eighth day the citizens of Athens joined in a long procession in her honor. The people laid their gifts and offerings at her feet. Priests made sacrifices at her altar.

133

The Olympic Games

The Greeks held many festivals to their gods. The greatest of these was one held every four years at Olympia in honor of Zeus. Thousands of Greeks from all the city-states thronged to see the Olympic Games, as this festival was called. It was so important that wars were called off between the cities during the time of the games.

Runners ran races to see who was the swiftest of the Greek youths. There were sports of jumping, boxing, wrestling, and throwing the discus. Wealthy Greeks entered their chariots and horses in the chariot races. These races were the most exciting

There was great excitement at the Olympic Games. What contest is going on here?



134 events of all. The throngs cheered their favorite charioteers on to victory. The air echoed with shouts of joy as the chariots dashed with wild speed to the finish line.

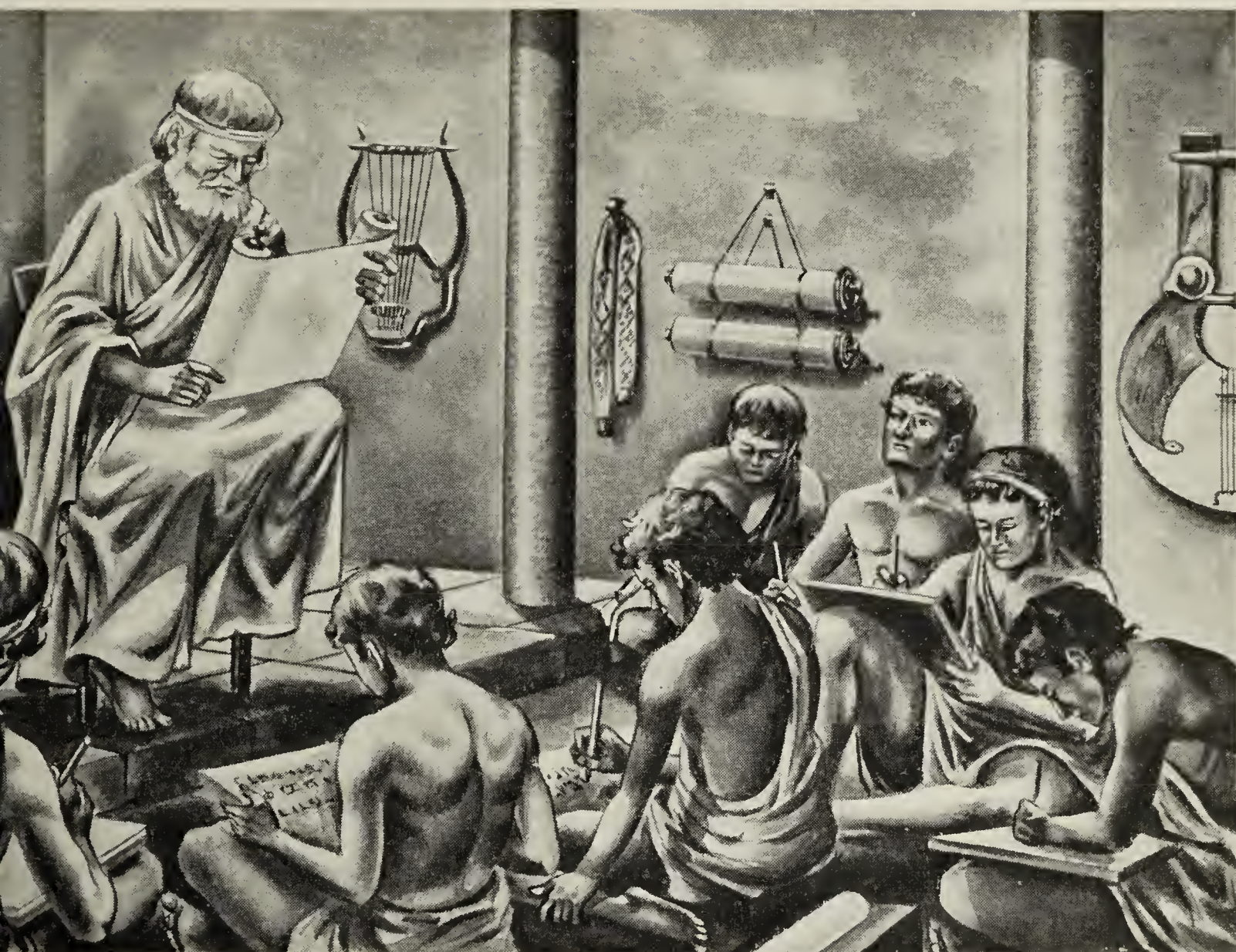
The prize for winning one of the contests was only a crown of olive leaves placed on the head of the victor. The glory of winning was enough for the runner. He had brought fame and honor to his city-state. Poets wrote of his victory, sculptors made his statue, and his family boasted of him forever.

Greek Homes

Greek homes were simple. They were built around a courtyard. The front of the house was a wall of sun-dried brick. A door in the wall led to the courtyard. Living rooms, sleeping rooms, and a little kitchen were around the court. A row of columns placed in the courtyard in front of the rooms made a porch.

Is there anything in this ancient Greek home that may be seen in your home, too?





What are these Greek boys learning in their school? What do you see on the wall?

The courtyard made a pleasant sitting room for the family. Young children played there with their tops, yo-yos, balls, toy animals, carts, doll beds, and jackstones. They played such games as tug-of-war and blindman's buff.

Schools in Greece

Greek schools were private ones, and unfortunately, only for the sons of the well-to-do. Girls learned at home what was needed to manage a household. Most of the children of the poor and of the slaves had no time or money to share in the learning that spread over Greece.

At the age of seven a boy started to school. A slave, called a *pedagogue* (pěd'ă·gög) usually went with him. The pedagogue carried the boy's books and lyre (lir), watched his manners, and tutored him after school hours if he needed extra help. During the morning the boys were taught the history of Greece, how

to read, and how to play the lyre. They learned to write on a wax tablet with a pointed pen called a stylus (stī'lus). They were given lessons in arithmetic, astronomy, and literature.

The boys memorized long passages from the *Iliad* and the *Odyssey* and other Greek tales and poems. These stories were used as textbooks in the schools. The pupils learned to dance and sing and give public speeches, too. No teacher would have thought of teaching a boy any foreign language, for the Greeks called everyone and everything outside of Greece "barbarian."

Most of the afternoon was spent in physical training on the athletic fields, or gymnasia, as they were called. This training made the bodies of the boys strong and healthy. In Athens, when a boy reached eighteen, he became a citizen. At the temple to Athena he took a solemn vow to serve and defend his beloved city. In the schools of Athens both the body and the mind were trained. That is one reason why Athens became the most civilized of the city-states and gave to the world new ideas in art, science, and government.

THE GREEKS AND THE PERSIANS

The Greeks had taken long steps ahead on the road to better living by 500 B.C. The city-states continued to quarrel over their differences, but at this time they had an outside power to worry them. For a while it looked as if they might be conquered and swallowed up by Persia. The mighty Persians had spread their empire westward and had conquered most of the Greek city-states in Asia Minor. The Greeks in Asia Minor fought against the Persian king. They sent to the mainland of Greece for help. The Spartans refused to go to their rescue, but the Athenians sent twenty ships to help fight the Persians.

Darius Tried to Conquer the Greeks

Then King Darius decided to punish Athens for meddling in his affairs in Asia Minor, or at least that is what he said. He

had long had his eye on the fair lands of Greece, her ships, and her flourishing trade. He decided to add them to his empire. He prepared a great expedition to send to Athens, but his fleet was dashed to pieces in a storm, and the Persians were forced to return home.

In 490 B.C. Darius sent a second expedition, which sailed across the Aegean and landed on the plain of Marathon, 22 miles from Athens. Sparta had promised to help Athens. As soon as heralds brought the news of the approaching Persians, Pheidippides (fī·dīp'ĩ·dēz), a runner, raced over the hills to Sparta, one hundred and fifty miles away. On the second day he arrived among the Spartans and begged them to send soldiers to fight the Persians. The Spartans waited a week before starting out, because they said it would displease Apollo if they left before the full of the moon.

In the meantime the Athenians, who could wait no longer, met the Persians in the famous battle of Marathon. A little help came from a city-state nearby, but the Athenians, by their own courageous fighting, defeated an army twice the size of theirs. At the end of the battle Pheidippides was sent to carry news of the victory to Athens. He was exhausted from the fierce fighting and yet he ran over the hilly road without waiting. As he cried to the anxious crowds, "Victory is ours," he fell to the ground dead. Such was the bravery of the men of Athens.



Persian Victories Followed by Defeat

Ten years later, Xerxes (zûrk'sēz), son of Darius, led another invasion to Greece. On a bridge of ships the Persian armies crossed the Hellespont, a narrow strait which separates Asia Minor from Europe. The Persians conquered northern Greece, pushed their way toward Athens until they reached a narrow pass in the mountains called Thermopylae (thĕr·mōp'ĩ·lē). At Thermopylae the Spartans, who had come to help this time, met the Persians. Leonidas (lē·ōn'ĩ·dās), king of Sparta, with only

three hundred brave men, held the pass against thousands of Persians. A traitor showed the Persians a way around the pass. Leonidas and his men were trapped, and they died fighting to the last man. In later years a tablet was placed where these heroes fell. It said, "Stranger, go tell at Sparta that we lie here in obedience to her command."

The Persians marched on their triumphant way to Athens. They burned the city. In despair the fleeing Athenians watched smoke and flames rising from the ruins of their homes. Then the Athenian fleet met the Persian ships in the Bay of Salamis. They managed to destroy the entire fleet and Xerxes was defeated.

THE GOLDEN AGE OF ATHENS

When the Athenians returned to their burned city, they set to work to rebuild it. Pericles (pě'r'ĩ·klēz), a great statesman, led the people of Athens from 460 B.C. to 429 B.C. Under his wise guidance there were 30 years of peace, and Athens grew to be the most beautiful and the most powerful city in Greece. These 30 years are sometimes called the *Golden Age of Athens*.

The Acropolis

Under the leadership of Pericles, skilled architects, sculptors, and craftsmen made the Acropolis the loveliest spot in the ancient world. On the Acropolis the Athenians placed a seventy-foot bronze statue of Athena. The great statue was made by the sculptor Phidias (fĩd'ĩ·ās), from the shields and spears taken from the Persians in the battle of Marathon.

Statues of gods and goddesses carved from lovely white marble stood on the hillside with Athena. Temples and shrines of marble were built there. Of all the stately temples with which the Athenians adorned the Acropolis, the most famous and the most beautiful was the Parthenon (pär'thē·nŏn), the



temple built to honor Athena. It is often called the “perfect building of the Greeks.”

The Parthenon, like the other new temples, was of marble. It was 228 feet long and 101 feet wide. Forty-six simple but majestic Doric columns surrounded the temple. Under the direction of Phidias, many skilled workers decorated the outside of the Parthenon with sculpture that pictured the glorious deeds of Athena and the history of Athens. Inside the temple was a statue of Athena made of ivory and gold.

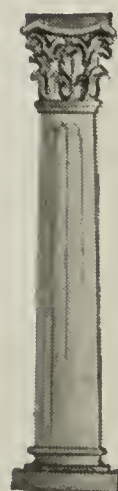
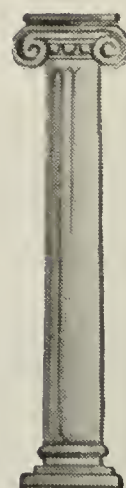
Greek Thinkers

In Athens men grew more and more interested in learning. They searched for the truth. They asked questions. They tried to find the answers. Many Athenians became great thinkers and teachers of other men.

One of the finest thinkers the world has ever known was Socrates (sŏk'rá·tēz). He lived in Athens in the last part of the fifth century B.C. His pupil, Plato (plā'tō), wrote down the sayings of Socrates. He described Socrates as the “wisest, the justest, and the best of all the men whom I have known.”

Socrates was short and stocky, with a very homely face, but he was so wise and good that his friends forgot about his looks. They admired and loved him for his wisdom. He believed it was his duty to teach young men and he would take no money for his work. One of his most important teachings can be found in just two words, “Know thyself.” Socrates found that by asking a man a question he could get him to think. To every answer Socrates asked another question.

Many young men of Athens gathered around Socrates as his pupils. They began to think seriously about everything. They wondered if it was right to worship so many gods. They wondered, also, if the government were just, or whether some improvement should be made. Some of the people who disliked change grew afraid of Socrates and thought he was teaching



140 dangerous ideas. In 399 B.C. they condemned him to death.

Socrates was as brave when he went to his death as he had been all his life. He believed nothing evil could happen to a good man either before or after death. When he was asked to drink the cup of poison hemlock, he did not falter. Although Socrates lived more than two thousand years ago, we still remember and honor him as a man who taught his fellow men to live justly and look for the truth.

Outside the city walls of Athens were two famous athletic fields named the Lyceum (lī·sē'ŭm) and the Academy. In time, so much learned discussion went on in the beautiful olive groves in these fields that many people came from far and near to listen to it. The fields became centers of learning. The most famous teacher of the Academy was Plato, pupil of Socrates. The great

Every four years the Athenians held a wonderful festival for their goddess, Athena. brought cattle and fruit and pots of honey. The women brought a beautiful robe procession, followed by young men in chariots, foot soldiers with gleaming armor,



teacher of the Lyceum was Aristotle (ă'r'is·tŏt'l), who had been a pupil of Plato.

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Some of the keen Greek thinkers became very good scientists. They had the mathematics and astronomy that had been worked out in the Valley of the Nile and in the Fertile Crescent to help them, but they went much farther in their scientific discoveries and ideas than did their neighbors.

About 460 B.C. one Greek thinker taught that substances were composed of tiny particles. He gave these particles the name atoms, which is a Greek word for "the uncuttables." This idea about the atom continued until the twentieth century. Only very recently have scientists learned that the atom is not "uncuttable." The Greek scholars made many very important discoveries in medicine, geography, and other sciences.

A long procession of people went to the Acropolis, bringing their gifts. The men which they had woven with great care and skill. The girls of the city headed the and mounted soldiers whose horses pranced to the music.



The Golden Age of Athens was the time when Greece reached her highest civilization. After that time Greece was conquered many times and became a part of other civilizations. No matter who ruled this little land, however, Greek art, Greek ways of building, Greek stories and poems, and Greek ways of thinking remained very important. The ideas of the Greeks spread throughout the ancient world around the Mediterranean and far beyond.

THINGS TO DO

I. QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS. Find the answers to these questions and others your teacher may ask while you are studying "The Greeks."

1. Who was Henry Schliemann and what did he do to add to our information about Ancient Times?
2. What were some of the things the people of Aegean civilization could do?
3. What did the early Greeks learn from the Aegeans? The Phoenicians?
4. What are the *Iliad* and the *Odyssey*?
5. Why did the many Greek city-states fail to unite?
6. How did Sparta and Athens differ?
7. What is democracy? What steps did the people of Athens take toward democracy?
8. Who were some of the gods and goddesses of the Greeks? How did the Greeks honor their chief god, Zeus?
9. What was life in a Greek home like? In a Greek school?
10. How did the Greeks defend their homeland from the mighty Persians?
11. How did architects, sculptors, and thinkers make Athens the most interesting city of Ancient Times during the Golden Age?



<i>Aegean Age</i>	<i>Acropolis</i>	<i>assembly</i>
<i>Hellenes</i>	<i>agora</i>	<i>outlanders</i>
<i>Greeks</i>	<i>bard</i>	<i>oracle</i>
<i>city-state</i>	<i>citizen</i>	<i>stadium</i>
<i>democracy</i>	<i>tyrant</i>	<i>pedagogue</i>

III. A PICTURE MAP OF GREECE. Elect a committee to make a large picture map of Greece. Print on the map the names of the important places in ancient Greece. Draw little pictures to illustrate the map.

IV. GREEK GODS AND GODDESSES. Make a chart of the gods and goddesses of ancient Greece.

V. ACTING TIME. Divide your class into committees to act out events and ways of living in ancient Greece. You may do your scenes silently or write scripts for the actors.

VI. NEWS FLASHES. Pretend that you are a newspaper reporter in Greece. Write a series of headlines that your paper would flash to tell the news you are reporting. Be sure to date your headlines.

VII. GREECE TODAY. This is a scene from Greece today. Do you see any evidences of ancient Greece in this picture? In geographies, encyclopedias, and current-events papers find out all you can about Greece today.



Charles Caleb Cushing



Chapter 9

The Spread of Greek Ways of Living

After the wars with the Persians the Greek city-states decided to form a league to protect themselves. Athens was made the head of the league and given charge of the fleet. She was allowed to collect the money to meet the expenses of the league. Soon other city-states began to feel that Athens was taking too much power. Again and again Sparta and Corinth went to war against Athens. The wars so weakened the Greek city-states that it was an easy matter for an outsider to conquer Greece.

THE HELLENIC LEAGUE

To the north of Greece was the kingdom of Macedon. Under their King Philip the Macedonians (măś'ē·dō'nĭ·îns) had grown very strong. The quarreling Greek city-states were no match for the Macedonians. King Philip conquered most of Greece with his well-drilled army. In 337 B.C. he brought together the city-states of Greece, except Sparta, into the Hellenic League. The word "Hellenic" comes from the word Hellenes, which was what the Greeks called themselves. The next year King Philip of Macedon died.

Alexander the Great

Alexander, the twenty-year-old son of King Philip, took his father's place. He was a strong, brave, and often rash young man. It was said that Alexander when a small boy wept at his father's victories. He feared that there would not be enough left for him to conquer when he grew up. King Philip, who admired and loved Greek ways of living, had invited Aristotle to Macedon to educate his son Alexander. Alexander learned to love Greek poetry and art and ideas. It became his ambition to spread Greek ways of living as far as possible.

Some of the Greek city-states tried to revolt when Alexander became king. He quickly showed them that he meant to hold on to all his father had conquered. The Greek city-states realized that it was useless to try to fight Alexander. They decided to fight with him instead of against him and sent soldiers to increase his army. With his army of Macedonians and Greeks, Alexander started out to make war on Persia, the old enemy of Greece.

When Alexander started out on his marches, Persia was the most important empire in the ancient world. Persia's rule extended from beyond the Oxus River and the Indus River on the east, to the Mediterranean Sea on the west, and included Egypt. Through this empire Alexander marched his Macedonian and



146 Greek soldiers. In Egypt he founded the city of Alexandria, which soon became the most important city of the Ancient World. Wherever he went, Alexander founded cities like those in Greece. Look at the map on page 145 for the size of his empire and the routes of his marches.

In the Fertile Crescent, near the ruined city of Nineveh, Alexander defeated the huge Persian army in 331 B.C. For six years he carried on conquests beyond the Tigris and Euphrates rivers. He even went east of the Indus River in India. Here his weary army refused to go any farther and finally he turned back. Alexander made plans to conquer the Arabian Peninsula and the lands west of Greece and Egypt. In 323 B.C., however, this young ruler of a vast empire died near Babylon at the age of thirty-three. He has come down in history as "Alexander the Great."

Alexander the Great talks over plans for military campaigns with his men.



THE HELLENISTIC AGE

The vast empire that Alexander the Great had so quickly conquered was divided among three of his Macedonian generals. They and the men who followed them continued to build Greek cities in their kingdoms. Greek merchants and traders and craftsmen moved to these cities. Greek teachers came and opened schools. Thus Greek art and Greek learning spread through all this part of the world. Many merchants and traders now began to use the Greek instead of the Aramaic language to carry on their business. Government officials spoke Greek in carrying on their work. We say that Greek became the *official* language of the lands around the eastern end of the Mediterranean Sea. Because Greek ways of living spread and mingled with the ways of living of southwestern Asia and Egypt, we call the time after Alexander the Great the Hellenistic (hě'ě·nīs'tik) Age. The Hellenistic Age, which inherited so much from the little city-states of Greece, was one of the most brilliant and interesting in all history.

Life in Priene, a Small Hellenistic City

The archaeologists have helped us to find out what life in a city of the Hellenistic Age was like. A few years ago they unearthed the little Hellenistic city of Priene (prī·ē'ně) in Asia Minor. As you read about Priene, remember that there were many cities much like it throughout Greece, on the islands of the Mediterranean Sea, in Egypt, and in southwestern Asia.

In 300 B.C. Priene probably had about 4,000 inhabitants. Around the city ran a strong wall. On the acropolis above the city there was a fortress where soldiers stood guard. Near one of the gates of the wall there was a food market. In the early morning farmers came in with their vegetables, fruits, fowl, and meat. Very likely a sun dial or a water clock stood in the market to help the farmers and townspeople tell the time of day.

Near the food market there was the agora where merchants had stalls and shops. Here the people of Priene could buy the things made by their craftsmen and goods brought from all parts of the ancient world. Beside the agora the business men of the city had built a handsome hall where they carried on much of their work and sometimes held great banquets.

Beyond the agora stood the government buildings of Priene. Such Hellenistic cities as Priene were free to govern themselves. They elected their own city officers and made their own laws. Of course such a city had to pay taxes to the ruler of the empire, but so long as there was no trouble, he did not interfere with their government. One way the Greeks everywhere showed their respect for government was by erecting handsome government buildings.

There were many temples in such a city as Priene. Near the agora there was a beautiful temple to the goddess Athena. Every Greek city wanted a lovely shrine for her. In Priene there was also a temple to the god of healing. It was a kind of hospital, for here there were rooms where sick people could stay.

In Priene there was also a temple to Demeter (dē·mē'tēr), the goddess who helped the seeds to grow. There was a temple to the Egyptian goddess Isis (ī'sīs), whom many of the people worshipped. Isis was supposed to bring good harvests. The Greeks called her the "queen of the wheatfield." In Hellenistic cities where there were Jewish merchants and scholars there was usually a Hebrew temple, too.

Like most Greek cities, Priene had a theater with sloping tiers of seats and a circular stage. Here each year the people enjoyed the spring festival to Dionysus (dīō·nī'sŭs) and came to see plays. Priene also had a stadium where athletic games and races were held. Next to the stadium there was the gymnasium where the men and boys spent many hours in training.

Attached to the gymnasium there was a large open hall which was used for a schoolroom. When the boys had finished the



elementary school, they were allowed to attend the lectures at the gymnasium hall. By 300 B.C. Hellenistic cities had elementary schools which were supported by the government.

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The homes in a city like Priene were more comfortable than the homes in earlier Greek cities.

The house was still built around a central court, but now the court was usually surrounded on all four sides by an attractive porch with columns. Most of the rooms were still small and bare, but the large living room in a well-to-do home was likely to be very attractive. In some houses the floors were covered with mosaic pavement. The walls were plastered and decorated with paintings. Some of the wealthy people in Priene covered their walls with marble. The furniture had become more elaborate than a century or two earlier, and in some homes there were carpets and hangings. The well-to-do families had water piped into their houses.



Water was carried in beautiful jars.

The homes of the poor were not so comfortable and beautiful as those of the wealthy. In the corners of some of the houses in the poor sections or in the business districts there were little shops which opened on the street. Here the owner sold his wares or rented the shop to another craftsman. Silversmiths, bakers, tailors, and potters worked in these little shops.

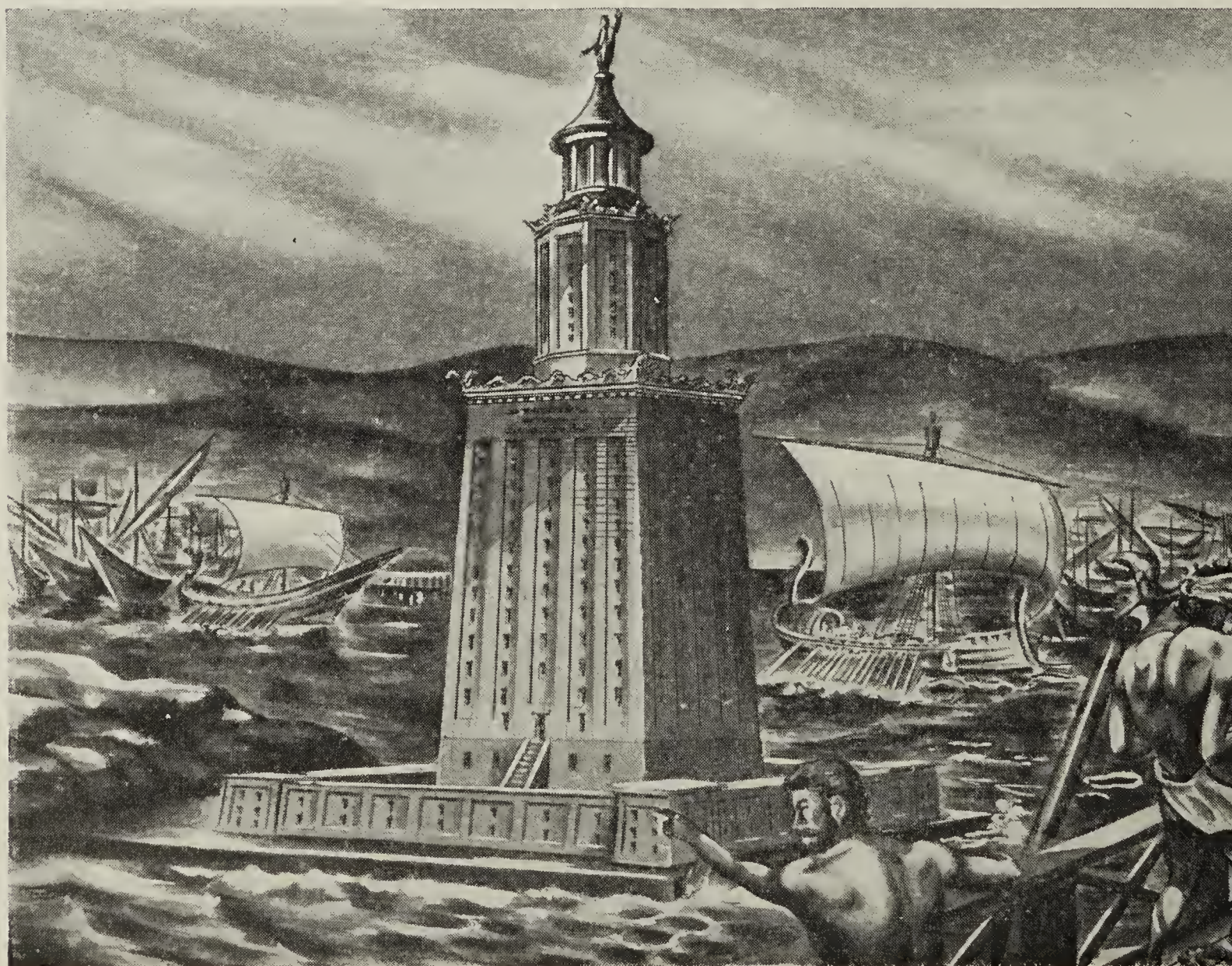
Alexandria

Of all the cities of the Hellenistic Age, Alexandria, which Alexander the Great had founded at the western end of the Nile Delta, was the most important. Alexandria was the largest city,

the wealthiest city, and it carried on the greatest commerce of all the cities of the Hellenistic Age. Tied to the docks were ships from every port of the Mediterranean Sea, from the Atlantic Ocean, and even from the Indian Ocean. Wherever ships could go they carried goods back and forth from Alexandria. At the entrance to the harbor, standing 370 feet high, was a wonderful lighthouse, the Pharos Tower, guiding the sailors to port.

The foreign rulers of Egypt supported learning generously. They built the famous Royal Museum of Alexandria. Here the scientists of the Hellenistic Age gathered to carry on research and to lecture to their students. Today we would call the Royal Museum a university. It was a wonderful place for young men to study. It had a fine library, excellent laboratories, public lecture halls, and interesting exhibition rooms. A young man could study medicine, geography, astronomy, mathematics, or physics.

From the summit of the lighthouse at Alexandria, mirrors threw its light far out to sea. Find Alexandria on your map on page 145.



If he wanted to study philosophy, however, he probably went to Athens.

There were excellent libraries in many Hellenistic cities, but the largest and most famous was at Alexandria. Shortly after it was founded, it contained more than 500,000 rolls, which later on grew to some 700,000 volumes. If one were interested in the study of language or literature, here was the place to be. For hundreds of years the libraries of Alexandria and other cities served the people of Ancient Times. One by one they were destroyed by fire or by invaders.

Learning in the Hellenistic Age

Scientists and other workers of the Hellenistic Age invented some very practical labor-saving devices. They knew how to use levers, cranks, screws, and cogwheels, which helped take the loads off the backs and muscles of men. Great blocks of stone could now be raised and lowered easily. In some homes there was a kind of washing machine.

In Syracuse there lived the greatest scientist of his time, Archimedes (är'kī·mē'dēz). He had studied at the museum in Alexandria and continued to exchange ideas with the scientists there. Archimedes rigged up pulleys and levers in such a way that the king could turn a crank and move a large, heavily loaded ship from the dock into the water. Archimedes boasted, "Give me a place to stand on and I will move the earth!"

In mathematics the most famous scholar of the Hellenistic Age was Euclid (ū'clīd). He was one of the famous teachers at the Royal Museum in Alexandria. Euclid put together in one book all that the thinkers of Ancient Times had learned about geometry. Today there are schools which still use the geometry book which Euclid wrote. His geometry is probably the oldest textbook still in use. Archimedes worked out many ideas in "higher mathematics," too. Many of his discoveries in mathematics were later lost and had to be thought out again in Modern Times.



With the help of mathematics, the astronomers and geographers learned a great deal about the world. They arrived at the conclusion that the world is round and not flat, as it seems to the eye. One astronomer believed that the earth and the other planets revolved around the sun, but most of the astronomers of the Hellenistic Age did not agree with him. They believed that the earth was the center of the universe and that the sun revolved around it. Eighteen hundred years were to pass before a Polish astronomer proved that the earth revolves around the sun. One astronomer of the Hellenistic Age figured the diameter of the earth to be 7,850 miles; he was wrong by only 50 miles!



Sailors and explorers also found out a great deal about the earth. Daring merchants and navigators from Alexandria sailed to India, around its southern tip to Ceylon, and along the east coast of India. Here they heard wonderful tales of China. To the west other explorers of the Hellenistic Age sailed into the Atlantic and north to the island of Britain. They sailed into the North Sea and heard tales of far-off frozen seas and an island called Thule. Thule was probably Iceland. About the year 200 B.C. one geographer drew a map of the known world. As his map shows, he drew lands around the Mediterranean quite accurately. He tried to lay out his map on a system of latitude and longitude.

During the centuries that the Greek way of life was spreading over much of the Mediterranean region, Rome, on the Italian peninsula, was growing and spreading its control. In time Rome conquered all the lands around the Mediterranean Sea and far beyond. From Greek and Hellenistic civilization, it learned and inherited much, as we shall see later. Even though Rome was the ruler, it was the Greek language, Greek learning, and Greek ways of doing many things that continued for a long, long time in the lands around the eastern end of the Mediterranean Sea. Many of our ways of living and much of the beauty of our own world came to us from the people of ancient Greece.

OUR HERITAGE FROM GREECE AND THE HELLENISTIC AGE

What the people of ancient Greece and of the Hellenistic Age thought and did has affected our way of living, too. In hundreds of buildings in our country we see many of their ideas of art and beauty. Wherever men seek wisdom and the good way of life they think of the ideas of such philosophers as Socrates, Plato, and Aristotle. Our idea of government "of the people, by the people, and for the people," or *democracy*, gets its name from the Greeks. It was they who gave the world the first lessons in democracy, even though they did not succeed in working it out fully. We have not yet succeeded fully, either. To the Greeks we owe much for their love of beauty, their search for the truth, and their ideas of clear thinking and honest living.

THINGS TO DO

I. QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS.

1. Why did an outside ruler have to make the city-states of Greece form the Hellenic League?
2. What part of the world did Alexander the Great conquer?
3. How did it happen that Alexander, a Macedonian, always founded cities copied after those of Greece?
4. How did Alexander's conquests bring about the Hellenistic Age?
5. What was life in Priene like?
6. Why was Alexandria the most important city of the Hellenistic Age?
7. What was the Royal Museum of Alexandria?
8. What kinds of labor-saving devices were invented during the Hellenistic Age?

- 9. What did Hellenistic astronomers, geographers, and explorers find out about the world?
- 10. What does our world of today inherit from ancient Greece and the Hellenistic Age?

II. HISTORY DEFINITIONS AND NEW WORDS.



<i>Hellenic League</i>	<i>pediment</i>	<i>pulley</i>
<i>Hellenistic Age</i>	<i>latitude</i>	<i>cogwheel</i>
<i>philosophy</i>	<i>longitude</i>	<i>mathematics</i>
<i>mosaic</i>	<i>lever</i>	

III. A LETTER. Pretend that you are a boy from Priene who has been chosen to take part in the Olympic Games. Write a letter telling about your experiences, how you went, what contest you took part in, what you saw and heard at the games.

IV. THE COSTUME BOOK AND THE BOOK OF HOMES. Be sure to add pictures of the Greeks to your *Costume Book*. Perhaps you will show the difference between the dress of the wealthy and the poor. In the *Book of Homes* show the difference between the homes of the rich and the poor both in the time of the early Greeks and in the Hellenistic Age.

V. THE TIME LINE. Extend your class and notebook time lines about Greece to include the Hellenistic Age.

VI. THE GIFTS OF GREECE TO THE WORLD. In your notebook write a list of the gifts ancient Greece and the Hellenistic Age gave to the world. Appoint a class committee to make a “step poster” showing these gifts. Maybe the committee will draw small pictures to place on each step.



Chapter 10

The Romans

You have seen how certain groups of men learned better *ways of living* in Ancient Times. Great civilizations grew up in the Nile Valley, in the Fertile Crescent, on the islands and on the eastern shores of the Mediterranean. How civilization spread to the western part of this large inland sea, and how all the ancient world around the Mediterranean was united into one empire is the story of Rome.

EARLY ROME

Archaeologists think that about the time the early Greeks settled on the Greek peninsula, other Indo-European tribes wandered into Italy. They were the descendants of New Stone Age men, but by the time they reached Italy, about 1200 B.C., they had learned to use metals. They liked the warm, sunny climate and fertile soil they found there. They took the land from the tribes there, and settled down to clear the forests and build their farms in central and southern Italy.

Of the groups who invaded the peninsula, some of the most powerful were the Italic tribes. It was from these tribes that the peninsula got its name, Italy. For many years the Italic tribes fought among themselves for possession of the land.

Sometime before 1000 B.C. bold bands of sea robbers, called Etruscans (ĕ·trūs'kānz), swarmed into the northern part of Italy. Archaeologists believe that the Etruscans probably came from somewhere in Asia Minor. They were fierce warriors. The skilled metalworkers of their tribes had learned to make deadly weapons of iron. Armed with their sharp spears and metal shields, they pushed the Italic tribes southward and took possession of the land north of the Tiber River.

Among the many Italic tribes who fought the Etruscans were the Latins. The Latins managed to gain control of the land on the south bank of the Tiber River. There they built a number of little towns and worked hard on their crude farms to earn a living. There were more Etruscans than Latins, and they were better armed. The Latins feared that some day the

Etruscan ships sailed on the Tiber River and traded with the Latin farmers.



Etruscans would cross the river and take their farms from them.

Like other ancient people, the Latins built their villages around a hill, or acropolis, which was fortified to protect them in time of danger. At a spot on the south bank of the river, about ten miles from the coast, were seven hills grouped together. Here the water was shallow and there was an island in the Tiber. It was at this spot that Rome had its beginnings as a little trading village about 1000 B.C.

Etruscan ships sailed up the river laden with goods. They were stopped at Rome by the shallow water and the strong bridge which the Romans had built from the mainland to the island. The Etruscan merchants met the Latin farmers on the low marshes between the seven hills. This was called the Forum or market place, where the trading took place. Here the Etruscans traded iron tools and weapons for grain.

Gradually the little trading center grew to be a good-sized town. Strong Latin chieftains ruled the town and their sturdy warriors protected the people. As time went on, Rome grew to be a busy little city. The Romans took on the job of protecting the Latin tribes south of the Tiber. For many years they succeeded in keeping the Etruscans on their own side of the river. Finally, however, about 750 B.C., an Etruscan king and his warriors forced their way across the Tiber and captured the city of Rome. From then until about 500 B.C. Rome was ruled by the Etruscan conquerors.



The civilized Greeks traded with the Romans and taught them many things that were useful.

The Kingdom of Rome

The Etruscan kings improved the city of Rome. They built walls around the seven hills. The Forum was low, marshy ground, often flooded in wet weather. The Etruscans, who were good builders, constructed stone drains arched at the top to carry off the water into the river. The idea of using arches to support heavy walls they brought from their early home in Asia Minor. The drains made Rome a much pleasanter and more healthful place in which to live.



The Etruscans did not stop with conquering Rome. They took several of the Latin villages south of the Tiber and ruled them from the city. The people in these villages continued to speak the Latin language and worship Latin gods, but gradually they came to think of themselves as Romans. Rome was no longer just a city. It had grown into a small city-kingdom.

Some of the Etruscan kings were cruel tyrants. A king named Tarquin was so bad that the angry Romans drove him from the city across the Tiber about 500 B.C. He was the last of the kings of Rome. The Romans had grown strong enough to keep out other conquerors. The people hated the very name of king and declared they would never have another. They took the government in their own hands and ruled themselves. They became a republic.

Changes in Rome

During the 250 years that the Etruscans ruled the kingdom of Rome, the people had learned new ways of living from their conquerors and from the Greeks with whom they traded. As the splendid Greek vessels sailed up the river, the Roman builders began to copy them. They learned to build good sailing ships and took them into the Greek harbors along the Mediterranean to exchange goods. They admired the Greeks and copied many of their ideas. They adopted their alphabet and changed it to

suit the Latin language. From them they learned to pay for their goods with copper money, which they found much easier than bartering with cattle and grain. They even adopted the Greek gods and gave them new names.

As the Romans conquered other tribes, they let some of them become citizens of Rome. There were, of course, many that they took as slaves to whom they never gave the right of citizenship. There were two classes of citizens in Rome. They were the nobles and the common men. In Rome the nobles called themselves *patricians* and the common people *plebeians* (plē·-bē'yānz). The patricians were the descendants of the oldest tribes that had settled in Rome.

Since the days of the Latin chieftains certain of the Roman citizens had always had a share in governing their affairs. They helped make laws and developed a system of law courts where questions could be settled. For the most part they were

Roman boys learned to farm and the girls to cook and keep house.



just and fair. They elected the wisest members of their tribes to serve in the Senate. The Senate advised the king in times of war and peace. It made laws for the people to follow.

Important men of the tribes met in what was called the Assembly to vote on questions that arose. The patricians, who thought themselves better than the common men, were the only ones allowed to vote or to be members of the Senate and the Assembly. Although the plebeians were citizens, they had almost no say in the government of Rome. They thought this was unfair and felt they should have the same privileges as the patricians. The plebeians had to serve in the Roman army during war, but the patricians gave them no share in the riches they got in their conquests. The plebeians were not allowed to marry the patricians. The laws of Rome were not written down. This led to many quarrels between the nobles and the plebeians.



During the reign of the Etruscan kings, the plebeians began their long struggle to gain their rights. This struggle lasted for several hundred years. There were more plebeians than there were patricians and the king needed them to fight in the army. They were the ones who raised most of the grain to feed Rome. The plebeians invented a new way to get what they wanted. They went on “strike” several times and even left Rome to start another city of their own.

The patricians found that they could not get along without the plebeians. Little by little the patricians gave in to the plebeians, until at last the plebeians had the same rights as the nobles. They could place men of their own rank in the Assembly of their tribe. The laws were written down on twelve stone tablets and set up where all could read them. The plebeians had a share in making them. They were permitted to marry whom they pleased and gained the right to vote. Finally, about 300 B.C., the old differences between the two classes of citizens died out and a citizen was called only a Roman. This was another step forward in the long march toward democracy as we enjoy it today.

Ways of Living in Early Rome

The life of the Romans while they were a kingdom was very simple. They worked hard on their farms. Even the patricians ploughed their own fields with their crude tools. During war they left their plows to fight, but they fought only to protect the land they tilled. Farming was the main job of most of the Romans.

The homes of the Romans were made of mud bricks dried in the sun. They had but one room. Here the family slept and ate. The mother prepared the simple meal of bread and vegetables on the open fire. Smoke from the fire blackened the walls of the house, for there was only a hole in the roof where it could escape. In a corner of the room the wife spun and wove the wool for clothes for her family. The few pieces of furniture were made of rough boards. The homes in the city were much the same as those on the farms.

The clothing of these early Romans was just as simple as their homes. The men and boys wore a short tunic of wool. Over the tunic Roman citizens wore a woolen blanket called a toga when they went to the Forum. Only citizens could wear the toga. Slaves were not allowed to put it on. The women dressed in a long tunic.

The citizens who lived in the city gathered in the Forum to discuss their public affairs. Business was carried on in the Forum. The Senate met there. The Forum was the heart of Rome.

The Roman father taught his sons the laws, how to farm, and how to count well enough to trade. He told them the stories of Roman heroes. The mother taught the girls how to cook and weave and help about the house. Women in early Rome had nothing to do with public affairs. Their place was in the home, taking care of the family. The Roman mother, or matron as she was called, was much respected by her family.

The Gods of Rome

The Romans lacked the vivid imagination of the warm-hearted Greeks. They were cold and practical, even in their religion. The favorite god of the Romans was Mars, the god of war. The king of the gods was Jupiter (jōō'pī·tēr). His wife was Juno (jōō'nō). Venus was the goddess of love and beauty. The goddess Ceres (sē'rēz) made the crops grow, especially the grain. We get the word *cereal* from her name. Mercury was the messenger of the gods and protected the traders.



The home altar of a wealthy Roman.

Janus (jā'nūs) was the god who guarded the door to the home. He was believed to have two faces, one that looked out and the other that looked in. The month January gets its name from him. A

shrine to Janus was built at the entrance to the Forum. When Rome was at war, the doors of the shrine were kept open. In times of peace the doors were shut.

THE DAYS OF THE REPUBLIC

As you know, in a republic the people help govern themselves. Rome was a republic for 500 years. After Tarquin was driven from Rome, two consuls were elected to head the government. They were patricians, since the nobles still had most of the power in their hands. It was agreed that the consuls should serve for only one year. With two of them, one could keep an eye on the other to see that he did not get too powerful. They were allowed to hold their office just one year

so they would get no ideas about making themselves kings.

The consuls led the army at war, acted as judges in the courts, and took charge of the public money. As Rome grew, the consuls were unable to attend to all their duties. Officers were elected to help in the job of governing. Censors kept lists of the people and collected taxes. They saw to it that Romans behaved themselves properly. Praetors (prē'tōrs) took over the work of judging in the law courts, because the consuls were often away at battle for long periods. The Romans were excellent organizers and planners. The Romans respected their government and their officers.

The Senate grew in power after Rome became a republic. It was made up of 300 of the wisest and oldest men of Rome whom the people trusted. After the plebeians won their rights they, too, could serve in the Senate. The senators were elected for life and spent their entire time solving the problems of Rome. They gained experience in governing during the years of their office. They loved Rome and thought always of its welfare. Many of them became fine orators. Their voices could be heard ringing through the Forum as they urged the people to work and fight for Rome. These thoughtful men advised the consuls. Slowly the Senate became the ruling power. Many people think that the Roman Senate in the days of the republic was the finest group of rulers the world has ever known.

Rome Conquered All Italy

In 500 B.C. Rome was just a small republic. It had to fight to keep the little land it possessed. Once the Gauls, a fierce barbarian tribe, poured down from the Alps across Italy into the very city of Rome. The Romans paid them a ransom of gold to go back to the north, where they settled around the Po Valley. The Gauls, however, continued to make trouble for many years.

In their raids the Gauls had so weakened the Etruscans north

164 of the Tiber that Roman armies captured the Etruscan territory. One by one they defeated the Latin tribes to the south. Even the Greek cities to the south surrendered to the Roman soldiers. By 275 B.C. the City of Seven Hills had conquered almost the entire peninsula of Italy. Look at the map on page 166.

The Roman Senate gave the defeated people a kind of Roman citizenship. This gave them the protection of the army and many of the rights of full Roman citizens. They were not given the right to vote, but since voting was done in the Forum at Rome, most of the people were too far away to care. They were allowed to manage their own affairs. For the most part they were content, and because they were treated fairly they did not revolt.

Rome sprinkled colonies of full Roman citizens throughout her conquered lands to keep an eye on things. Wherever they went they took Roman ways of living with them. Very slowly

The Forum was the heart of Rome. Trading was carried on in the Forum, and the



the Roman ways spread over all Italy, and Latin became the language of the people.

The Two Rivals in the Mediterranean

As Roman traders grew rich, more and more Roman vessels sailed into ports on the Mediterranean. They ran into trouble with merchant ships from Carthage, the city which the Phoenicians had founded in northern Africa. Carthage was three times the size of Rome, with magnificent buildings and costly homes. Wealthy Carthaginian merchants controlled Spain with its valuable silver mines, most of the northern coast of Africa, and the islands in the western Mediterranean. They wanted all the trade in this part of the world for themselves.

When the Carthaginians saw the Roman merchants take away some of their business, they were angry and decided to put a stop to it. After many years of quarreling with Rome, the Car-

Senate met there. It was the voting place of Roman citizens, too.



thaginians at last closed the harbors of the islands. They said no ships except their own could enter them. Roman vessels that tried to go into the ports were rammed by the warships of the

Carthaginians and sunk. You can imagine how the Romans felt when this news reached Rome.

The Senate decided there was only one thing to do. Rome must become the master of the Mediterranean Sea. Carthage must be put out of business. It took almost 120 years of fighting to accomplish this difficult task. The wars with Carthage are known as the Punic (pū'nīk) Wars. The Punic Wars changed the map of the ancient world.

In 264 B.C., when the first Punic War broke out, Rome controlled no land outside the Italian peninsula. She had a good army, but no navy. The Senate ordered a fleet to be built, and for the first time Roman warships sailed the

sea. After a long struggle the Roman fleet destroyed the Carthaginian navy and took the island of Sicily for Rome. This was an important step for the Romans because it began the conquest outside of Italy that made them the rulers of the ancient world.

Hannibal and Scipio

There was in Carthage a brave young general named Hannibal (hăn'ĩ·băl). His love for Carthage was so great that he spent his life trying to save her from destruction by the Romans.



Hannibal took a Carthaginian army through Spain, over the Alps, into Roman territory. It required great skill and courage for Hannibal to move his men, horses, and elephants over the narrow, snow-covered passes of the Alps. For over fifteen years he stayed in Italy trying to capture Rome. He even marched to the very gates of the city itself. For a time it looked as if Rome had met her match. But once again the wise Roman Senate came to the rescue.

The Senate saw that the Romans needed a skillful general to manage their army if they were ever to defeat Hannibal. They elected a young leader named Scipio (sĭp'ĩ·ō) to head the Roman legions. He was the first great military leader of Rome. Scipio decided to take his army to Africa, and there he attacked Carthage. Hannibal had to leave Italy and go home to defend his beloved city. After a long siege Scipio outwitted the Carthaginians and led Hannibal's army into a trap. Mighty Carthage was defeated!

For about fifty years Carthage was allowed to trade in certain parts of the Mediterranean, but in 146 B.C. the Romans made war on Carthage once more. This time they completely destroyed and burned the beautiful city. The territory was added to Rome and called the Province of Africa. Rome now controlled the western part of the Mediterranean Sea.

Rome Gained Other Provinces

During the long Punic Wars the Romans had developed methods of warfare that made it possible for them to carry their



Hannibal led his army across the Alps.

168 conquests into the eastern half of the Mediterranean as well as in the west. The Greek states, Macedon, Syria, and Egypt



Triumphal arches were built to welcome the returning Roman victors.

came under the control of Rome or were allied to it. This period is often called the “Age of Conquest.”

A governor from Rome was sent to rule each of the provinces. Although the Senate tried to be fair, the Roman governors were often cruel and unjust. They made the people pay heavy taxes and stole their lands and goods. This caused unrest among the conquered lands. Rome had a hard time to keep her new possessions. For many years she was in constant warfare with the provinces and the barbarian tribes that

threatened from the north. In addition the people at home were having difficulty because of the long years of fighting.

SOME RESULTS OF THE WARS

Although the “Age of Conquest” added new territory to Rome, the effect on the people was not good. Wars were as bad in Ancient Times as they are today. Let us take a look at Rome in the last years of the republic to see what happened.

Greek Learning Spread to Rome

The Roman legions plundered the conquered cities and carried the booty to Rome. Victorious generals returning home marched through the streets at the head of their troops. They were hailed as conquering heroes. Triumphal arches were

erected in their honor. Festivals and games were held to celebrate their victories. At the end of the triumphant processions came the unhappy prisoners of war. Thousands of captives from Greece, Asia Minor, Carthage, and other provinces were sold as slaves in Rome.

Often the slaves who were brought to Rome were more civilized than the masters who bought them. A strange thing happened. The Romans conquered the Greek states, but gradually Greek learning conquered Rome! The Romans were quick to realize that the Greeks were more educated than they. Some of the best-educated slaves were given their freedom. They translated Greek books into Latin. They opened schools where Roman boys were taught to read, write, recite poetry, and speak both Latin and Greek. They taught the rough Romans better manners. The effect of Greek learning was good for Rome, but the effect of long years of war and cheap slave labor was bad.

Wide Difference between Rich and Poor

In the old days of Rome, most of the sturdy farmers had the same opportunities. Now that Rome ruled a vast empire, there was a big difference between the lives of the rich and the poor. As a result of the wars the great mass of the Romans were growing poorer. A few became rich.

Often citizen-farmers returned from years of fighting in foreign lands to find their farms uncared for and their crops ruined. They became discouraged and sold their land to the rich. Farmers who tried to raise grain were not able to get enough for it to keep them alive. The rich bought up their lands and became plantation owners. They built beautiful villas in the country. There they lived lives of ease, while the slaves did the hard work in the fields and managed the household.

The men who had once been farmers wandered into Rome. They lived miserable lives, herded together in dirty huts on the outskirts of the city. Thousands and thousands of the idle poor



170 thronged the streets seeking free food and amusement. The wealthy gave them a little grain and entertainment to keep them from stirring up riots.

In the amphitheaters big shows were put on to please the poor. They watched men called gladiators fight each other with swords or fight wild beasts. These fights were cruel and bloody, but the Romans enjoyed them. Throngs attended the circuses to see the chariot races. The great mass of the Roman people lived on charity and excitement. Gone was the nation of hard-working farmers who ruled themselves. Gone were the best days of the republic.

JULIUS CAESAR

In 59 B.C. a man named Julius Caesar was elected consul of Rome. He was a fearless leader who had the welfare of the

Chariot races were held in the big arena, called the Circus. Each driver wore a thrilling, but as the Romans became less and less interested in their republic and



Roman people at heart. He put through laws that helped the common man and became well liked and respected in the republic. At the end of his year as consul he was made governor of the province of Gaul to the northwest.

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The Gauls had troubled the Romans for hundreds of years. Caesar was a brilliant military commander. He conquered all the territory of the Gauls and extended Roman control through what is now France and Belgium. He pushed the northern border of Rome to the Rhine River. Caesar took his armies across the English Channel and invaded the island of Britain. He was the idol of his soldiers and the hero of Rome.

The Senate was jealous of Caesar's victories. When they learned he was returning to Rome at the head of his army, the senators feared he and his soldiers would take their power from them. They ordered him to disband his army before crossing the

special color, and there were four chariots in a race. The chariot races were more in sports and pleasure, the republic became weak. Finally it disappeared.



boundary of Gaul into Rome. The boundary was the Rubicon (rōō'бі·kōn), a shallow little river in northern Italy. Caesar had no intention of breaking up his legions; he needed his soldiers to carry out his plans for improving Rome. Boldly he crossed



Caesar improved Rome in many ways, but he was a dictator.

the Rubicon with his loyal troops behind him. By disobeying the Senate he really declared war on Rome. Caesar's decision was so great that even today the expression "crossing the Rubicon" means taking an important step.

Caesar and his soldiers took possession of Rome. He sent armies into the provinces, where he set up a strong government. Within five years after he marched into Italy he controlled the lands around the Mediterranean Sea. The Senate now did what he wished, and he was made dictator of Rome for life. Caesar suc-

ceeded in improving the government where the Senate had failed. He reduced taxes and gave land to the poor.

Among other improvements, Caesar adopted the convenient Egyptian calendar. The Romans made some changes in it and gave the months new names. Caesar named July after himself. The story of the Roman calendar, which is called the Julian calendar, is a fascinating one that you will want to read. We use the Roman calendar today.

Since the days of Tarquin the Tyrant the Romans had hated anything that reminded them of a king. Some of them believed they could bring back the republic by getting rid of Julius Caesar. They made a plot to kill him. On the Ides of March, in 44 B.C., they murdered him in the Forum that he loved. His

death did not restore the republic. It died, too, because the Roman citizens had lost the ability to govern themselves.

THINGS TO DO

I. QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS. Find the answers to these questions and others your teacher may ask while you are studying "The Romans."

1. What early tribes fought for land in Italy? From which of these tribes did Italy get its name? From which tribe did the language of the Romans get its name?
2. How did the location of Rome help it to grow from a small trading post to a world city?
3. What did the Etruscans teach the Romans? What did the people of Rome learn from the Greeks?
4. What ideas about government did the Romans work out in the days when Rome was a kingdom?
5. How did the common people, or plebeians, gain their rights? What were the most important rights they won?
6. What was home life like in the early days of Rome?
7. Who were the chief gods and goddesses of Rome?
8. When Rome was a republic, how was the work of governing the Romans carried on?
9. How and when did Rome become the ruler of almost all of the Italian Peninsula?
10. What were the Punic Wars, and how did they change the map of the ancient world?
11. When Rome conquered lands far beyond Italy, what happened to the conquered people? What happened to the Romans?
12. Who was Julius Caesar, and why did he become dictator of Rome?



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II. HISTORY DEFINITIONS AND NEW WORDS. In your notebook write history definitions for these words and expressions about ancient Rome.

<i>City of Rome</i>	<i>Empire of Rome</i>	<i>toga</i>
<i>Forum</i>	<i>Age of Conquest</i>	<i>tunic</i>
<i>Kingdom of Rome</i>	<i>patricians</i>	<i>orator</i>
<i>Vestal Virgins</i>	<i>plebeians</i>	<i>province</i>
<i>Republic of Rome</i>	<i>consuls</i>	<i>ally</i>
<i>Senate</i>	<i>censor</i>	<i>triumphal arch</i>
<i>Assembly</i>	<i>praetors</i>	<i>gladiator</i>
<i>Punic Wars</i>	<i>lictors</i>	<i>Ides of March</i>
	<i>amphitheater</i>	

III. STUDY THE MAP. Be sure that you know where all these places are located on the map and how to spell each name.

Peninsula of Italy	Rome	Sicily
Apennine Mountains	Po River	Rhine River
Tiber River	The Alps	Spain
Mediterranean Sea	Gaul	Carthage
	Britain	

IV. THE GODS OF ROME. The Romans adopted many of the gods of the Greeks and gave them Latin names. Make a chart to show who the Roman gods were and who their Greek ancestors were.

	ROMAN GODS	
Greek Names	Roman Names	What the gods controlled

V. MORE INFORMATION. You will want to find out more about the following topics and others your teacher may suggest. For more information look in the encyclo-

pedias and library books. Select a topic and give a good oral report about it.

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The Roman Gods
The Struggle between the
Patricians and the Plebeians
Stories of Hannibal
Stories of Julius Caesar
Roman Amusements

The Roman Calendar
Brutus
Mark Anthony
The Gauls
In a Roman School
In a Roman Home

VI. WALL HANGINGS. Appoint a committee to make wall hangings on large sheets of wrapping paper. You may color them with chalk, crayon, or poster paint. You may want to try to make your pictures on old sheets.

A Scene in the Forum
A Scene in the Senate
A Hero's Return
Hannibal Crossing the Alps
A Chariot Race
A Triumphal Procession

Caesar in Gaul
Rome's Busy Docks
A Roman School
A Roman Home
A Greek Slave Teaching
Romans

VII. COMPARISONS. Compare Julius Caesar and Alexander the Great; Scipio and Hannibal.

VIII. A ROMAN TIME LINE. Make a time line that will show all the important events mentioned in this chapter.

IX. MAP-MAKING. Make a map showing where Caesar and his armies went and the territory that Rome controlled as a result of Caesar's conquests.

X. NEWS FLASHES. Write news flashes of important happenings during the history of Rome that you have studied in this chapter. Keep your flashes in historical order.





Chapter 11

The Roman Empire

Julius Caesar's adopted son, Octavian, was a clever young man only eighteen years old when Caesar was killed. He saw that Rome was in danger of losing the provinces she had fought to win. There was disorder and trouble everywhere. Unless Rome was united under one strong government, the giant Rome would fall to pieces. He took over the leadership of his country. He proved to be a powerful military leader and a great statesman. By the time he was thirty-two he had stopped the rebellions and established wise, firm rule throughout Italy and the provinces. After 1000 years the tiny city on the Tiber had spread her power over all the ancient world, around the Mediterranean and beyond. Rome had become a great empire, ruled by an emperor.

Octavian's name was changed to Augustus. He did not try to conquer more lands, but devoted his life to organizing the empire. He posted legions on the frontiers to defend Rome. He appointed wise governors to the provinces. He saw to it that the governors were honest and able to do a good job. The people of the provinces were allowed some say in their local affairs. Augustus collected only taxes that were fair. In the provinces

he built fine public buildings, roads, bridges, and aqueducts to carry the water. Under his wise guidance the entire empire was united under one rule. At last Rome was at peace.

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The wise Augustus encouraged learning. He established two excellent libraries in Rome with fine collections of Greek and Latin books. He started schools for the rich and poor. He began the great University of Rome. During his reign Virgil, a great Latin poet, wrote the *Aeneid* (ĕ·nē'īd), which is still read and enjoyed today. Rome became the art and literary center of the ancient world. This time was known as the Golden Age of Rome.

The Romans liked to build colonies, so wherever they conquered they went to live. In Spain, Gaul, and Britain fine Roman cities were built. The Romans took their Latin language, art, literature, methods of building, and system of law courts with

Jesus taught that people should help each other and worship God humbly and sincerely. Where did he live and teach? What were his followers later called?



178 them. That is why today we see ruins of Roman buildings in France, and Spain, in Africa and in Asia Minor. That is why Latin is the root from which the languages of Italy, Spain, Portugal, France, and Roumania grew.

In the lands around the eastern end of the Mediterranean Greek continued to be the language of business and learning. Educated Romans learned Greek and loved the literature of Greece. Roman literature never equalled the literature of Greece. The Romans spread the fine civilization of the Greeks and the Hellenistic Age over the western part of the Mediterranean and far north to Britain. To this civilization they added much of their own.

CHRISTIANITY

During the reign of Augustus, Jesus was born in Bethlehem, a town in the Jewish province of Palestine. The great Augustus



probably never heard of him, but the name of Jesus was to live, while that of the mighty emperor was forgotten by many.

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The Teachings of Jesus

Jesus was a poor carpenter who taught men how to lead good lives and get along happily with one another. He went about telling men to love one another and to help their neighbors. He said that a good life was better than riches. He helped the poor and needy and comforted the unfortunate. Like his Hebrew forefathers, Jesus taught that there was only one God and he called on all men to worship him.

At first only a few listened to Jesus' message of love and brotherhood. Certain men did not like his ideas and thought his teachings were dangerous. They told the Romans that he was trying to make himself king. The young teacher of good ideals was put to death on a cross.



The Spread of Christianity

After his death the followers of Jesus, or Christ as he came to be called, spread his teachings to small groups of people nearby. Saul, a Jew of Tarsus, became a Christian and changed his name to Paul. He carried the teachings of Jesus to Asia Minor, to Greece, and to Rome. At the same time a biography of Jesus' life was written in Aramaic, which was the language in which he preached. This biography was lost, but Greek accounts of Jesus' life were also written. Four of these biographies became the Four Gospels of the *New Testament* of the Christian Bible. The poor and burdened found hope and comfort in the new religion. They met in secret places to worship the one God about whom Jesus taught.

For many years the Christians were persecuted by those who

The early Christians were brave and loyal in their faith, although they were cruelly persecuted and many of them killed.



thought they were traitors or preaching things that were not true. Christians were put in prison, stoned to death, or thrown to the lions in the Colosseum. But persecution did not stop the Christians. Their numbers increased. Little by little the rich and powerful Romans became followers of the new faith. In 313 A.D. Constantine, the emperor, put a stop to the cruel persecution. Then the Christian religion spread rapidly in Rome. The Romans carried it to their provinces throughout their empire. It continued to grow through the centuries that followed and came to be one of the great religions of the world.

THE ROMANS AS BUILDERS

The Romans were the greatest builders of Ancient Times. They borrowed ideas from the Egyptians, the Babylonians, and the Greeks. The Palatine Hill in Rome glistened with its marble palaces and huge government buildings erected on rows of arches. The arch also helped the Romans to build their great aqueducts.

In early days the water supply in Rome was poor. Later, fresh water was carried to the city by 300 miles of stone aqueducts. The first one was built in 312 B.C. Later nine aqueducts carried about 100,000,000 gallons of water a day to Rome. Clever engineers designed the aqueducts and carried them over the valleys on high arches. The emperors had their builders construct aqueducts in all parts of the empire so that the crowded cities would have good water.

Roman Roads

In the same year that the Romans built the first aqueduct, they started to construct the first of their great roads leading from Rome. This was the Appian (ăp'ī·ăn) Way, and it was made so well that it is still in use today! As time went on, the Romans built roads stretching out in all directions from the city to the far-off corners of the empire. They were built so that



182 Roman troops could be moved quickly to where they were needed. Much of the work was done by the Roman soldiers when they were not at war. At every mile on a Roman road



Stopping for a night at an inn on one of the many roads to Rome.

stood a milestone showing the distance from the capital of the empire to that point on the road.

At the time when civilization was at its height in the lands around the Mediterranean, there were 372 roads in the empire, with a total length of 52,964 miles. They bridged the rivers, tunneled the mountains, and crossed the marshes. Travel on the roads was fast. In fact it was possible to go two hundred miles a day. The traffic was heavy with trains of donkeys transporting goods. Roman officials on horseback used the roads to go to the provinces.

An excellent postal system carried mails regularly over the roads throughout the empire. Business men and traders hurried over the pavements to complete their dealings. Over the roads spread Roman ways of living. Not until after railroads were built could people travel so rapidly and so easily as they did in the days when the people of the ancient world around the Mediterranean said, "All roads lead to Rome."

THE ROMAN EMPIRE AT ITS HEIGHT

For almost two hundred years after the reign of Augustus, most of the Roman Empire was at peace. On the south the vast empire extended into the deserts of North Africa. On the east the empire reached the Tigris River. On the north and north-east the Danube River and the Rhine River bounded it. The

southern part of the island of Britain was a part of the Roman Empire. On the west the Atlantic Ocean washed the shores of Gaul and the Iberian Peninsula, two important parts of the empire.

Population of the Roman Empire

In the Roman Empire lived close to a hundred million people. In North Africa lived Berbers (bûr'bêrs), North Africans, and Egyptians. At the eastern end of the Mediterranean, in and around the Fertile Crescent, there were Arabs, Phoenicians, Syrians or Arameans, Persians, Hittites, and many others. In Europe lived the Greeks, the Italians, the Gauls, and the Iberians (î·bêr'î·ăns), who were the ancestors of the Spaniards. North of Gaul lived the Britons. In many cities in the Roman Empire lived the Jewish people, whose capital had been destroyed by the Romans in 70 A.D.

Among the millions of people who made up the Roman Empire there were many differences in native language, in appearance, in manners, in clothing, in religion, and in customs. But they all were a part of the Roman Empire and paid taxes to it. They all enjoyed its peace and protection for a long time. Many were proud to be a part of the Roman Empire.

Trade and Travel

The long, blue Mediterranean Sea was the center of the life of the great Roman Empire. On its waters passed many kinds of ships. There were little boats that stayed close to shore. There were huge grain ships which could carry several thousand tons of wheat from Africa to Rome's harbor at the mouth of the Tiber River. Big sails and three banks of oars pulled by strong rowers furnished the power necessary to move such large ships. There were large passenger ships on which hundreds of people could travel comfortably to many parts of the Roman Empire.



In many harbors there were docks and lighthouses modeled on the famous Pharos Tower in Alexandria.

Good boats and good roads helped the people of the Roman Empire to exchange all kinds of goods. From far-off Britain came tin. From India came pepper and diamonds and rubies, and from distant China came silk. A fleet of 120 ships sailed regularly across the Indian Ocean between the Red Sea and India. Most of the goods from China came by caravan across the deserts and plateaus of Asia, but in 160 A.D. a Roman ship actually reached China. The greatest port on the Mediterranean was still Alexandria. There was a saying that one could find everything in Alexandria except snow.

Because travel was safe and easy, many well-to-do people enjoyed visiting distant parts of the Roman Empire. They liked to go to Greece to visit the Acropolis at Athens or to attend the Olympic games. Travelers made leisurely trips up the Nile to

Life was easy and pleasant for the rich Romans, but for the slaves and the many



view the pyramids and temples of the Egyptians. To the people of 100 A.D. the pyramids were, of course, more ancient than ancient Rome, Alexandria, and Athens are to us. Wherever the traveler of the second century A.D. went east of Sicily, he heard Greek spoken, for it long remained the language of educated people around the eastern end of the Mediterranean Sea. When the traveler went into the western end of the Mediterranean he heard Latin spoken.

The City of Rome

By the second century A.D., Rome had become the most magnificent city in the Mediterranean world. In size and splendor it was even greater than Alexandria, but not in trade. The emperors who followed Augustus continued to make Rome a beautiful city. They added new forums and public buildings. In the second century the Emperor Vespasian (vēs·pā'zhǐ·ăn)

poor people, it was hard. What classes of people do you see here?



built an amphitheater, which we call the Colosseum (kōl'ō-sē'ŭm). It could seat almost fifty thousand spectators. When it was dedicated there were bloody contests which lasted for a hundred days. The Colosseum still stands in Rome today. In many a city in the United States there is a stadium modeled after the Colosseum of ancient Rome.

To the magnificent capital of the Roman Empire came people from all over the Mediterranean world. They liked to make Rome their home, for here they could carry on business with many parts of the empire. Some came to Rome to attend the libraries and universities or to go to games at the Colosseum. Well-to-do Roman women wore silks from China and diamonds and rubies from India. From the East came two new fruits, peaches and apricots, and a grain called rice. The Roman cooks sweetened food with "sakari," which was sugar that had come from India.

For the well-to-do and successful, life in Rome was pleasant. But silks and jewels and strange, interesting foods were not for the poor and unemployed of Rome. Many had to live in huge barracks owned and managed by the government. Thousands of people in Rome lived in high, rickety apartment houses which crowded the vast city. Unfortunately many depended on the emperors for "bread and circuses," just as they had in the last days of the republic.

THE DECLINE OF ROME

During the first two hundred years that Rome was an empire, things continued to go well. But after that many of the emperors who came into power were weak and unwise. They did not enforce the laws. They taxed the people heavily to pay for extravagant buildings. The great mass of the people had no say in the government and lost interest in it. More idle men than ever before roamed the streets. They wasted their time cheering at the chariot races and watching the cruel shows in the

Colosseum. There was not enough grain to feed them; many starved. The Romans as a people had grown soft and lazy. Things went from bad to worse for about 300 years.

In 324 A.D. the Emperor Constantine moved the capital of the Roman Empire from Rome to Byzantium (bǐ·zǎn'tǐ·ǔm), which was a Greek city on the European side of the Bosphorus. The name was changed to Constantinople. Soon Constantinople was almost as important as Alexandria. Constantine's moving of the capital from Rome to Constantinople showed the world that Rome had lost its power and importance.

The Roman legions were made up of paid troops of soldiers who fought for the money or other payments that they received and not for the love of their country. This meant that they did not always make good soldiers.

At the same time that the Roman Empire was becoming weaker and weaker, there were barbarian tribes up in the north that were growing stronger. The day was soon to come when these strong barbarian tribes would cause serious trouble.

The Teutons Invaded the Empire

The Teutons (tū'tǒns), as the barbarians beyond the Rhine and the Danube rivers were called, had always been troublesome. The Romans had never been able to conquer them. The Teutons saw that Rome had lost her strength, and about 400 A.D. they began to make frequent raids along the border. There was no mighty Caesar to stop them. Bolder and bolder they grew. To the once proud city of Rome they pushed their way and caused great damage before they retreated.

The Teutons took possession of the Roman provinces in the west. In 476 A.D. the Teutons drove out the last emperor in the western part of the empire. Rome had lost her provinces, her power, and her glory. The great Roman Empire which had ruled the ancient world for about 500 years was no more. Although the military power of Rome was gone, Roman ways

188 and ideas lived on. They had a great influence on the lives of the people who were to follow.

WHY ANCIENT TIMES ARE IMPORTANT TO US

We have seen how civilization slowly grew around the Mediterranean Sea. In the Nile Valley of northern Africa and in the Fertile Crescent of western Asia, New Stone Age men changed their ways of living and gradually became civilized. Many of their ways of doing things and of thinking spread to the islands of the Aegean Sea and to the mainland of Europe. In Greece great beauty and wise thinking became a part of the civilization that spread all around the Mediterranean and far beyond. Over all these lands Rome at last became ruler.

From all the peoples of the Mediterranean, Rome learned much, and to their own achievements added ideas about law and governing and building on a great scale. Northward into Europe spread the civilization that had grown up around the Mediterranean Sea. Even though the Roman Empire broke up at last, the long heritage of civilization did not entirely disappear in Europe. The achievements of Stone Age men in Prehistoric Times and of the peoples who lived in Ancient Times around the Mediterranean Sea are the foundation on which our ways of living are built.

With the fall of Rome we say that Ancient Times ended and the Middle Ages began.

THINGS TO DO

I. QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS. As you study "The Roman Empire," find the answers to these questions.

1. What did the Emperor Augustus do for the Roman Empire?
2. Where and how did Christianity start? How did Christianity spread to many parts of the Roman Empire?

3. In what ways did their good aqueducts and roads serve the Romans?
4. What were the boundaries of the Roman Empire when it was at its height? What was its population?
5. What were some of the differences among the millions of people in the Roman Empire? In what way were they alike?
6. How far in different directions did the trade of the Roman Empire extend? What goods and products were brought to Rome?
7. To what places did tourists like to travel in the peaceful days of the Roman Empire? What did they see? What languages did they hear?
8. Why did people from many parts of the Empire like to go to Rome to visit and to live?
9. How did the poor live in Rome?
10. What were some of the reasons the Romans lost their power?
11. What city did the Emperor Constantine make the capital of the Roman Empire? What did the moving of the capital show about conditions in the Roman Empire?
12. What did the Teutons do to Rome and the Roman Empire?
13. Why are Ancient Times important to us?

II. HISTORY DEFINITIONS. In your notebook write definitions for these terms.

Golden Age of Rome

Four Gospels

Christianity

Decline of Roman Empire

III. ROME'S TIME LINE. Make a time line of the history of Rome from 1000 B.C. to 500 A.D. and place on it

the ten events that you consider most important in Rome's long history.

IV. THE COSTUME BOOK AND THE BOOK OF HOMES. In your Costume Book be sure to include pictures of a Roman matron, a Roman citizen, a Roman boy and girl, a slave, a soldier, and an emperor. In your Book of Homes you will want to place pictures of the home of an early Roman farm family, a Roman villa of the days of the Empire, a Roman "apartment house," a palace, the home of a poor family in or near Rome.

V. FOR THE MUSEUM. For your museum make models of a Roman ship, a chariot, a triumphal arch, the Forum, the Colosseum, an aqueduct, a milestone, a bridge. The pictures in this book will help you.

VI. A PICTURE MAP OF THE ROMAN EMPIRE. Make a picture map which shows the extent of the Roman Empire. Appoint a committee to make a large picture map to hang in your room.

VII. MORE INFORMATION. Select one of the following topics or one your teacher suggests and prepare an oral report to give to your class.

The Palatine Hill in Rome	Roman Roads
Augustus and the Roman Calendar	Virgil
Roman Gymnasiums and Baths	Jesus and Paul
Roman Aqueducts	The Emperor Constantine

VIII. A NEW RELIGION. It was in the days of Augustus that Jesus, the founder of Christianity, was born in Palestine. Appoint one pupil to tell about the life of Jesus and another to read aloud Jesus' "Sermon on the Mount," which you will find in the *New Testament*.

LET’S REVIEW

I. COMPLETE YOUR RECORD. Finish your notebook about life in ancient Greece and Rome.

II. A MATCHING TEST. Copy the list of words in Column I on a sheet of paper. Find the words in Column II that match the words in Column I and put the correct letter beside the right word in Column I.

Column I		Column II	
1. Augustus Caesar	<i>a.</i>	the “heart of Rome”	
2. Zeus	<i>b.</i>	the leader of the Golden Age of Athens	
3. Athens	<i>c.</i>	first emperor of Roman Empire	
4. Forum	<i>d.</i>	a great Roman conqueror	
5. Pericles	<i>e.</i>	the Roman alphabet	
6. Scipio	<i>f.</i>	the language of the Romans	
7. Latin	<i>g.</i>	the chief of the Roman gods	
8. Constantine	<i>h.</i>	Greek city famed for its beauty	
9. Julius Caesar	<i>i.</i>	a Hellenistic scientist	
10. Jupiter	<i>j.</i>	the Roman who defeated Hannibal	
	<i>k.</i>	emperor who moved the capital of Roman Empire	
	<i>l.</i>	chief of the Greek gods	

III. A CHART OF CONTRIBUTIONS. Make a chart to show what the Greeks and Romans of Ancient Times contributed to our ways of living. Arrange your chart like this.

The Contributions of Ancient Greece and Rome	
Greece	Rome

IV. LET'S TALK IT OVER.

1. If you had lived in Ancient Times, where would you most have enjoyed having your home?
2. If you had been one of the famous persons of Ancient Times, which would you have liked to be? Why?
3. Why can it be said that Jesus, a man of peace, was the greatest conqueror of Ancient Times?
4. What cities do you know in the United States which are named after persons and places of Ancient Times?
5. How did the Golden Age of Athens and the Golden Age of Rome compare in art and literature and thinking?
6. How were Jesus and Socrates alike? How were they different?

V. HEROES OF LEGENDS. Prepare a program in which the heroes of the *Iliad*, the *Odyssey*, and the *Aeneid* "come to life" and tell about themselves. Have the chairman of the program tell who wrote these famous stories, when they were written, and what they meant to the Greeks and the Romans. Have you discovered how the *Iliad* and the *Aeneid* were connected with each other? You may want to act out scenes from these famous stories.

VI. A HALL OF FAME. Prepare a Hall of Fame program. Decide what Greeks, Romans, and other persons of Ancient Times should appear on the program and who will take the parts of these famous persons. Each person should tell who he is, when he lived, where he lived, and what he did. Appoint a class committee to prepare an

attractive scroll on which are printed the names in the
Hall of Fame.

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VII. LET'S READ.

The Adventures of Odysseus, and the Tale of Troy by
Padraic Colum, The Macmillan Company.

The Aeneid for Boys and Girls by Alfred J. Church,
The Macmillan Company

Alexander the Great by John Gunther, Random House

The Enchanted Past by Jeannette Hodgdon, Ginn and
Company

Buried Cities by Jennie Hall, The Macmillan Company

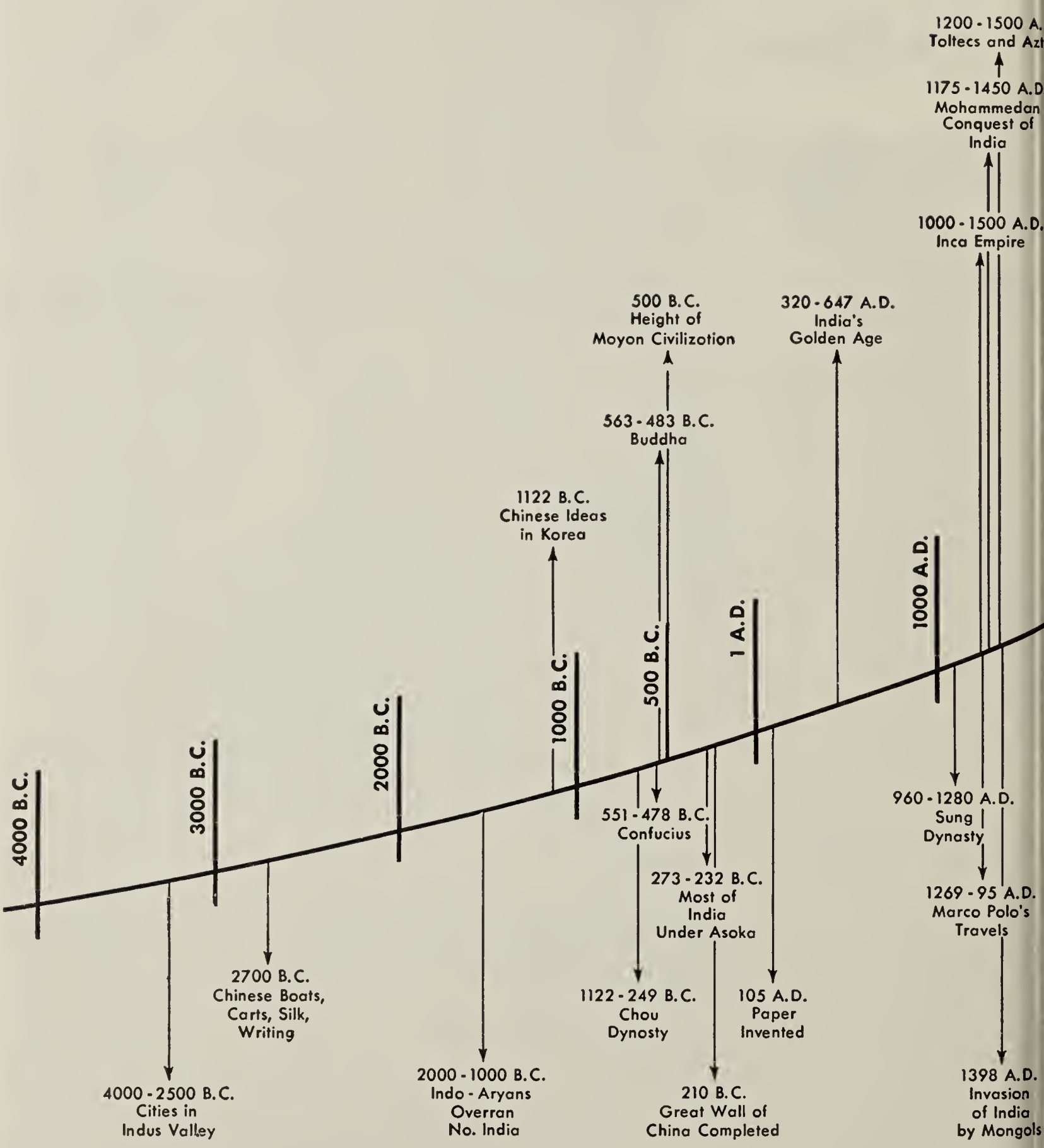
Stories of the Gods and Heroes by Sally Benson, Dial
Press Inc.

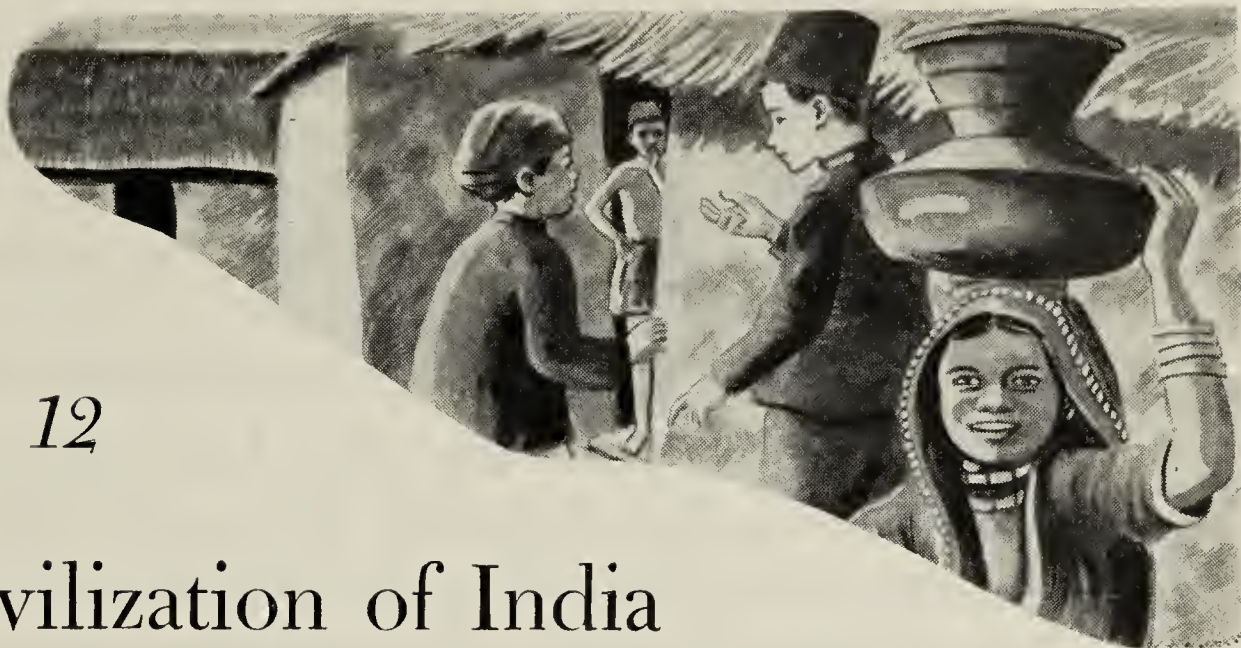
Unit 4



Civilizations

Around the World





Chapter 12

The Civilization of India

India is like a giant triangle jutting south of the vast continent of Asia. On the east are the Bay of Bengal (běn'gôl) and the Indian Ocean, and on the west is the Arabian Sea. To the north are the Himalayas (hǐ·mä'lä·yās), the highest mountains in the world. Among the snows of the Himalaya Mountains rise the rivers of northern India. The most important are the Indus (in'dūs), the Ganges (gǎn'jēz), and the Brahmaputra (brä'mä·-pōō'trā) rivers. The Indus River, which empties into the Arabian Sea, flows through a warm valley. Here New Stone Age men became settled farmers, much as they did in the Valley of the Nile and in the Fertile Crescent.

ANCIENT CITIES IN THE VALLEY OF THE INDUS

A few years ago the archaeologists began to make some very important discoveries in the Indus Valley. They uncovered the ruins of two very ancient cities which probably flourished four to five thousand years ago. These old, old cities of the Indus Valley had wide, well-planned streets. Along these streets there were roomy houses and well-built baths. The greatest thought and effort went into building homes and not into erecting pyramids, palaces, and temples, as in Egypt. The people of the

Indus Valley made cotton cloth 2000 years before it was made anywhere else.

From the clay models found in their ruins we know that the people in the Indus Valley worshipped a Mother Goddess and other gods. They had tamed such animals as the sheep, the pig, the dog, the elephant, and the camel. The children of the cities played with marbles, carts, clay figures, and other toys. The merchants traded far and wide, possibly as far west as the Tigris-Euphrates Valley. The farmers had wheeled carts and bulls and buffalos to help them. These ancient people had worked out a system of writing to which no one has yet found a key.

No one knows for certain where these ancient people of the Indus Valley came from. Some scholars think that long, long ago, when Africa and India may have been connected by land, dark-skinned people from Africa wandered eastward and settled

What can you learn about ways of living in ancient India from this picture?



in the river valleys and on the plains of India. It is not known why their civilization ended about 2500 B.C. Perhaps a flood or a plague suddenly ended the civilization of these people.

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THE INDO-ARYANS

Sometime before 1500 B.C. a new people began to settle in the Indus Valley. They came through the passes of the mountains in northwestern India. They were the Indo-Aryans, who came from around the Caspian Sea. They were related to the Indo-Europeans who were pushing into the Fertile Crescent and into Greece and Italy. The Indo-Aryans were taller and lighter-skinned than the people they found in India. They were good fighters and great boasters. They thought themselves superior to the dark-skinned people they found in India. They did not seem to realize that the ancestors of these peace-loving people had built well-planned, comfortable cities.

Spread of the Indo-Aryans in India

The Indo-Aryans gradually pushed their way into the river valleys of northern India, going eastward into the Ganges Valley, too. The Indo-Aryans called the dark-skinned people they found in India, Dravidians (drā·vīd'ī·āns). They made slaves of some of the Dravidians and others they drove farther south in India. The Indo-Aryans did not set up a single government over all the land they conquered. Instead there were many city-states and little kingdoms. Just as in Greece, these city-states and kingdoms often fought one another.

The Indo-Aryans spoke a language called Sanskrit. Sanskrit is distantly related to Greek, Latin, English, and many other languages. Sanskrit is such an important ancient language that it is studied in many of our universities today. The Indo-Aryans made up poems, stories, and hymns. They were told and sung by father to son for many, many centuries. When the Indo-Aryans worked out a system of writing they wrote down

200 their hymns and poems and stories in books called the *Vedas* (vā'dās). The *Vedas* are to the people of India what the *Odyssey* and the *Iliad* were to the ancient Greeks. They show how the religion of India grew from a belief in many gods to the idea that the entire universe and everything in it is God.

Hinduism

Hinduism is the religion of about two thirds of the people of India. When Americans and Europeans speak of the people of India, they usually call them all Hindus rather than Indians. It is well to remember that about one third of the Indians are not Hindus.

Though they believe that the universe and everything in it is God, nevertheless, many Hindus believe in many gods. Because all life is sacred, even cobras, parrots, and crocodiles have been made gods. The cow is especially sacred because of her gentleness and rich gift of milk. Since all life is sacred to the Hindus, they do not eat meat.

The Hindu religion teaches that a person lives many lives before he finally becomes a part of God. According to this belief, the soul of a person passes at death into some other creature, human or animal. If the person has led a



An illustration from the *Vedas*.

wicked life, the soul may pass into the body of a dog or a pig, or some other animal. If the person has led a good life, his soul

passes into a higher class, or caste. Only by the gradual building up of a good record through many lives can a person become forever a part of God. This belief is called *reincarnation*, or *transmigration of souls*, and is very important to the Hindus. It partly accounts for the fact that the Hindus have castes.

Caste in India

At first the Hindus were divided into four castes. The highest caste was, and still is, made up of the priests and scholars, called Brahmans (brä'māns). They performed the religious ceremonies. Throughout the many hundreds of years they have kept their place at the top of the caste system.

The next caste of Hindus was made up of the nobles and the soldiers. The farmers and merchants made up another caste. The slaves and serfs made up the lowest caste. There was a group even below the slaves and serfs. They had no caste and were called outcastes. They could not even live in the villages with the other castes but had to live on the edges of the villages. In 1947 the Indian government passed a law which was supposed to put an end to the system of caste, but it will no doubt take a long time to change the old caste system.

Guatama Buddha

There were people in India about 500 B.C. who wanted to reform Hinduism. The greatest of these reformers was Guatama Buddha (gô'tā·mä·bööd'ä), who was probably born about 563 B.C. He was the son of a ruler of a small kingdom at the foot of the Himalaya Mountains. Buddha was a happy boy who knew little of the troubles of the world. One day he suddenly became aware of the pain and sorrow that he saw as he walked through the streets of the city. "How can man be happy and free from pain?" he asked himself. Buddha became so troubled about this thought that he left his comfortable palace and his friends to go out into the world to find the answer.

One day as Buddha sat thinking alone under a large tree, the answer, or “enlightenment,” came to him. From the “enlightenment” he built up a set of ideas which have influenced many millions of people. He taught that pain is a part of life. Therefore, to be happy, man must try to withdraw from the activities of the world. Buddha gave simple rules of living which included thinking and telling the truth, self-control and never hurting anyone or anything.

Dressed in a simple yellow robe and carrying the beggar’s brass bowl, Buddha, the “Enlightened One” wandered through the valley of the Ganges preaching. He spoke to everyone, for caste meant nothing to him. He taught that all men are equal. His teachings were kind and gentle. When he was a very old man the last words his disciples heard him say were “Be lamps to yourselves. Hold fast to the truth as to a lamp.”

After his death, some of the very things Buddha had preached

Buddha talked to people everywhere he found them. “Hold fast to the truth,” he said.



against crept into his teachings. Men began to pray to him as to a god. They made huge statues of him. Many of the Brahmans, of course, did not like Buddha's teachings. In time they drove Buddhism out of India. To Ceylon, Tibet, China, and Japan the teachings of Buddha spread. For many hundreds of years there have been millions of followers of Buddha in those lands.

Asoka

When Buddha lived, there were sixteen kingdoms in northern India and many others in the central and southern parts of India. Alexander the Great reached India in 326 B.C., and for a brief time northwestern India was a part of his empire. After Alexander's death there was a family of kings which united all of northern India into one empire.

During the days of this empire, ways of living in India were excellent. Farming was so well carried on that famines were almost unknown in the land. In the markets of the capital, on the Ganges River, one could find silks from China, spices from the islands to the east, and ever so many things from such cities as Damascus and Alexandria. Many trading ships sailed around India to the Tigris River and to Arabia. Other ships sailed east to Burma and China.

The greatest king of the empire was Asoka (ä·sō'kà). Asoka was such a wise ruler that he takes his place among the greatest in history. Asoka decided to try to bring all of India into his empire and he started out to conquer southern India. He almost



204 reached the southernmost part of India in a very short time. This wise, just ruler was so horrified and disgusted with the cruelty and destruction of war that his first campaign became his last. He resolved to govern only by law, for, said he, "The conquest of the Law is alone a conquest full of delight."

Asoka became a very sincere Buddhist. He worked to spread Buddhism throughout India and neighboring lands. He built hospitals, public gardens, monasteries, and universities. To these universities came students from as far away as China and the lands of southwestern Asia. If you should visit India today you could see for yourself the stone columns on which Asoka carved some of his wise commands and sayings. On one of the pillars he erected he put this wise thought: "All religions deserve reverence. By thus acting a man exalts his own religion and at the same time does service to the religions of other people."

Very few rulers ever did as much for their people as Asoka.

THE GOLDEN AGE OF INDIA

After the death of Asoka, the empire began to break up, and India again had many kingdoms. Some of the kingdoms were very prosperous and exchanged goods and ideas as far west as Rome. The people living in the lands around the Mediterranean Sea especially liked the Indian dyes. The word "indigo" has come down to us from those far-off days. By way of India great quantities of precious spices went to the Roman Empire.

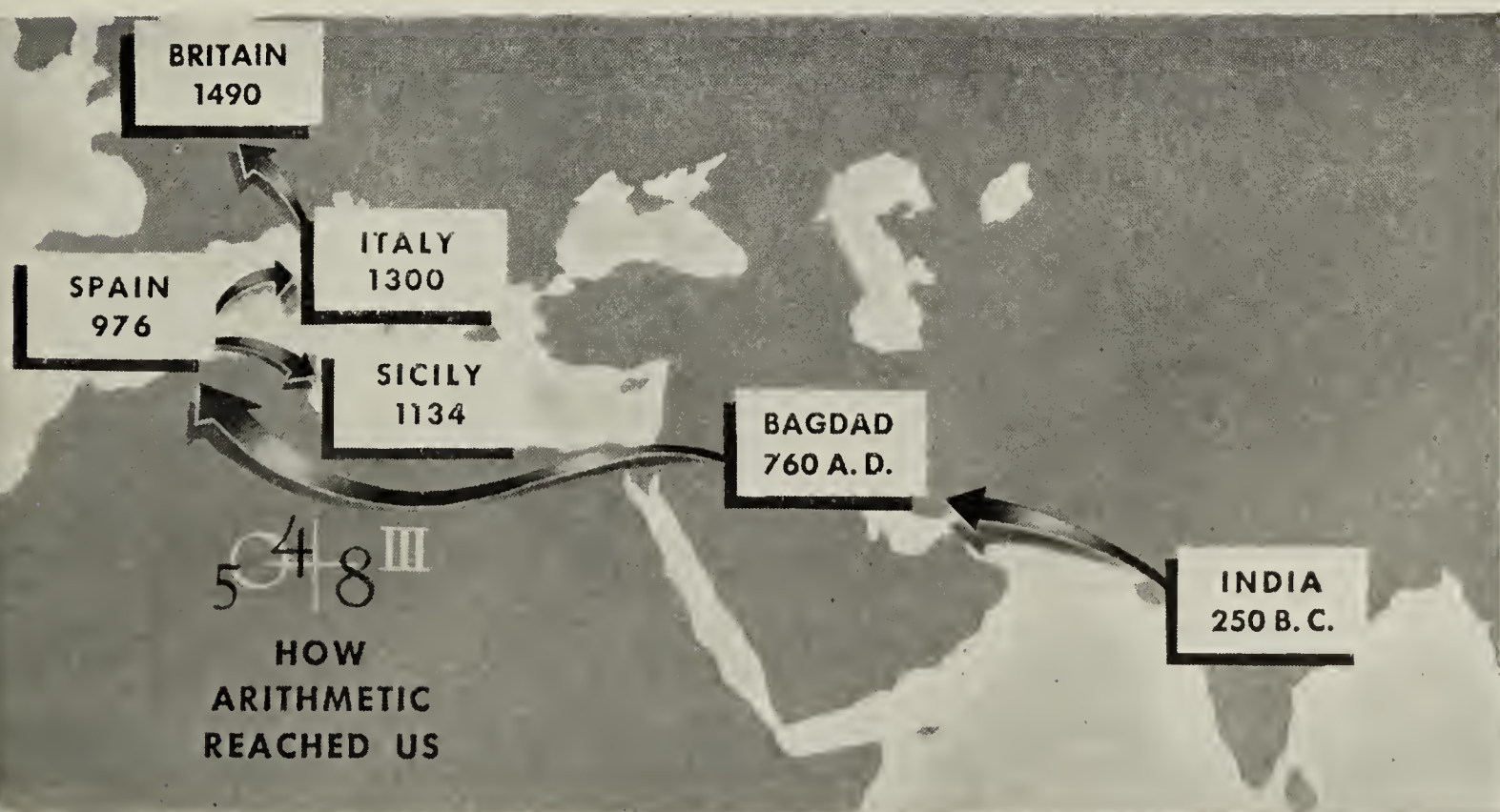
At the time the Roman Empire in the West was coming to an end and western Europe was in a "Dark Age," northern India was in its Golden Age. Indian authors wrote much fine literature. Artists and craftsmen made many beautiful things; architects designed handsome buildings; and metalworkers made the finest steel in the world. During the Golden Age of India doctors knew how to sterilize wounds to prevent infection and made very careful study of the parts of the body.

It was the Indians who worked out the simple numerals 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, and 9. On one of the columns erected by Asoka these old "Hindu" numerals can still be seen. The Indian thinkers probably invented the zero, too. They thought out the decimal system and the very important idea of "place," which shows the relation of one number to another in a series. When we see 4, 45, 450, 4500 we know exactly what those figures stand for because we can read numerals and we understand the idea of place.

We call Indian numerals Arabic numerals because the people of Europe learned them from the Arab traders who found them in India. For hundreds of years the people of Europe used the very difficult Roman numerals. For instance, they had to multiply MMCCCXXXII by XLII instead of 2332 by 42. The Arabs called the useful numerals the "numerals of Hind." If the people of India had not invented simple numerals, people would probably have used the clumsy Roman numerals much longer than they did.

THE MOHAMMEDANS IN INDIA

Shortly after the year 700 A.D. a new group of people began to come into India. They were Mohammedans from Arabia.



Later in this book we shall tell about their religion, conquests, and achievements. At first the Mohammedans and the Hindus got along well together. Then Mohammedan Turks began to come down through the mountain passes in northwestern India. The Mohammedans wanted to rule India themselves and the feelings between the two groups changed. The Mohammedans gained more and more power over the Hindus until shortly after 1300, when they controlled most of India.

Mohammedanism and Hinduism are in many ways very different religions. Some of the Mohammedan rulers hated Hinduism and were very cruel to the Hindus. They destroyed many of the Hindu temples and images. They even destroyed entire cities in India. Hinduism lived on despite all the cruel troubles the Hindus had to endure.

The Arab and Turkish Mohammedans in India were followed by still other Mohammedans. They were the Mongols, who came from the steppes of Asia and conquered much of Asia. The people of India called the Mongols "Moguls."

Akbar

Akbar (äk'bär), one of the Mongols, became one of India's greatest rulers. He ranks almost with Asoka among the great

The great Mongol Empire extended across Asia into Russia.



leaders of the world. Akbar, whose name means “very great,” began to reign in 1542 and ruled for almost fifty years. By the time he died, his kingdom included almost all of India except the southern tip. Akbar ruled this vast kingdom justly and wisely. The laws of Akbar’s India were probably the fairest in the world at that time.

Akbar never learned to read, but he loved all kinds of learning. He had so much literature read to him that he was probably the “best read” man of his time. He did not despise Hindu ideas and achievements. Akbar felt that every religion had something of truth to offer to people. He felt, too, that any religion was untrue to itself when it did not believe that other religions were sincere. Akbar invited Moham-medans, Hindus, Christians, and people of other religious faiths to his court and tried to learn all he could from them.

The Taj Mahal

Akbar’s grandson did not have the wisdom of his grandfather, but during his reign he built many beautiful buildings. The most beautiful of these is the Taj Mahal (täj·mä·hä’l’) at Agra. The Taj Mahal was intended for a pleasure palace, but it became the tomb of the ruler’s favorite wife and of himself.

The Taj Mahal is considered one of the most beautiful buildings in all the world. It is made of white marble and inlaid with sparkling jewels. An army of Hindu workmen labored twenty-two years to erect this “gem of buildings.” According to a beautiful story found in an old Persian book, the plans for the Taj Mahal were drawn from a dream which the empress had.



Some day you may visit the Taj Mahal.

Every year thousands of people visit the Taj Mahal. They are fascinated by its symmetry, its arches, domes, minarets, and decorations, and the lovely gardens and pools which stretch out before it. Visitors especially like to view the Taj Mahal when the brilliant Indian moon is shining, for then it sparkles like a scene from fairyland.

Shortly after the death of Akbar's grandson, the Mogul Empire began to break up, as empires seem always to do. By this time Europeans were exploring all over the world. Soon the Portuguese, the Dutch, the French, and the British were trading with India. The British finally became the rulers of India. Today India is independent and is divided into two countries. The Mohammedans, or Moslems, control the parts of India called Pakistan (pà·kīs·tān'). The Hindus control most of the rest of India. When, in August, 1947, the people of India made their flag, they placed on it the wheel of Asoka, India's great ruler of more than two thousand years ago.



Family and Village Life in India

Throughout India's long history, the ways of living of most of the people have changed very little. For them, family and village are very important. They know very little about the world and ways of living beyond their village. An Indian family is more than father, mother, and children. It is made up of the father and mother, their sons, grandsons, great-grandsons, and their wives and unmarried daughters. It is really a group whose members are all descended from a common ancestor. When the daughter of a family marries, she belongs to the family of her husband.

Just as family life has been much the same for hundreds of years, life in the 700,000 villages of India has changed very little in her long, long history. If we could visit one of these villages today, we would find most of the people living in little houses built of mud bricks with roofs of straw, just as their

ancestors lived for hundreds of years. The village streets would be dusty, narrow, and crowded with the little houses. We might see one large house with a tile roof, the home of a well-to-do farmer or landlord.

In such a village of India we would find just about the same work going on that was done two thousand years ago. We would see the farmers working hard on their little plots of ground close to the village. With the help of oxen, crude ploughs, hoes, and waterlifts, they grow such crops as wheat, barley, cotton, sugar cane, rice, millet, vegetables, indigo, and poppies. We would see the carpenters, potters, leatherworkers, weavers, ironworkers, and many other craftsmen carrying on their work just about the way it has been done for hundreds of years.

The Indians today want all of their people to have modern tools, education, and good homes. But they do not forget their

What are the members of the family doing in this large Indian household?



210 long heritage. All the world is indebted to India for literature and architecture, many beautiful things, cotton cloth, and much of the arithmetic we use to carry on our ways of living.

THINGS TO DO

I. QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS. Find the answers to these questions and others your teacher may ask.

1. What have archaeologists recently found out about civilization in the Indus Valley four to five thousand years ago?
2. Who were the Indo-Aryans and about when did they come into India?
3. What is Hinduism? What are some of the beliefs of the Hindus? What does Hinduism teach about caste?
4. Who was Buddha and what did he teach?
5. Why does Asoka rank among the greatest rulers in history?
6. What was life in India like during its "Golden Age"? What had happened to the Roman Empire by that time?
7. What useful ideas in arithmetic do we inherit from the people of India?
8. What different groups of Mohammedans came into India? What happened to the Hindus then? To the Buddhists?
9. Why does Akbar take his place among the greatest rulers of India?
10. What have family and village life been like in India through most of her long history?

II. HISTORY DEFINITIONS AND NEW WORDS.

Indo-Aryans

Buddhism

Hinduism

Brahmans

Golden Age of India

Mohammedans

Moguls

Dravidians

reincarnation

transmigration of souls

minarets

caste system

castes

indigo

“enlightenment”

“Arabic” numerals

“place” (in arithmetic)

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III. CAN YOU READ THE MAP OF INDIA? Study these names to be sure you can spell them and then locate them on the map.

India

Bay of Bengal

Indian Ocean

Arabian Sea

Indus River

Ganges River

Brahmaputra River

Himalaya Mountains

Delhi

Agra

IV. THE TIME LINE OF INDIA. Make a time line for the long history of India. Begin your time line with the early civilization archaeologists recently uncovered in the Indus Valley and end it with the date when India began to govern herself and created a new flag.

V. HINDUISM AND BUDDHISM. In your notebook write a description of the two chief religions which started in India. You may want to consult encyclopedias and books on India for more information.

VI. TIME FOR ARITHMETIC. On a page in your notebook do the following arithmetic examples. Multiply 126 by 3. Multiply CXXVI by III. You may have to ask your teacher for help. Under the examples write a paragraph that tells what we owe to the thinkers of India for helping us with the problems of arithmetic.

VII. LET'S COMPARE THEM. As you study the history of different peoples, it is interesting to compare their ways of living with those of other people who lived at about the same time and with ways of living today. In class discussion, compare the following:

Homes in the ancient Indus Valley cities with homes in ancient Egypt, Babylonia, Greece, and Rome

The Indo-Aryans with the Indo-Europeans

Guatama Buddha with Ikhnaton and Jesus

Asoka with Akbar

Akbar with Julius Caesar

The Taj Mahal with the Parthenon

Buddhism and Christianity

The population of India today with the population of the United States

An Indian family with your family

VIII. WHAT DO THEY MEAN? The Buddhist Asoka said, "All religions deserve reverence." About a thousand years later, Akbar, a Mohammedan, said, "Every religion has something of truth to offer people." What do you think these two famous men of India meant? Do these sayings teach us Americans of today something very important? Why?

IX. INDIA TODAY. Appoint a committee to look up information on India today and present it to the class. The committee should be sure to tell about the way the people live today, about India's leaders, life in some of the cities of India, and the efforts that are being made to improve life in India. A small group of pupils may prepare a large map of India as it is today.



Chapter 13

Chinese Civilization

China is a very large land in eastern Asia. Its eastern shores are washed by the Yellow Sea, the East China Sea, and the South China Sea, which are arms of the Pacific Ocean. On the west, northwest, and southwest high mountains, vast deserts, and dry plateaus protect much of China. In such a vast country there are different kinds of climate. In the north the winters are very cold and the summers hot. There are large stretches of rich soft soil called “loess” (lō’ēs). Strong west winds probably blew the soil eastward from central Asia. In the south the climate is semitropical, and here much rice is grown. In western China there are great mountain areas. Two very long rivers flow eastward across China. In the north is the Hwang Ho (hwäng hō’), or Yellow River; in the south is the Yangtze (yäng’tsě) River.

We know that men have lived in China for thousands of years. It is in China that scholars found the remains of “Pekin Man,” who lived in Old Stone Age times. Four to five thousand years ago men who called themselves “the black-haired people” were settled farmers in the valley of the Yellow River. By 2700

214 B.C. these people, now called Chinese, had spread eastward to the Shantung peninsula and southward in the Yangtze Valley.

CHINESE DIVISIONS OF HISTORY

Like India, China has one of the longest histories in the world. Sometimes “The People’s Kingdom of the Middle Flower,” as the Chinese often call their country, extended far to the north and to the south. At other times it was split into many parts. The Chinese do not divide their history into “Ancient Times,” “Middle Ages,” and “Modern Times,” as we do. Instead, they divide their history into “dynasties.” Any line of rulers, or emperors, all of whom belong to the same family, is called a dynasty. During the long time that we date “B.C.,” China had three important dynasties. One of these dynasties lasted about four hundred years, another lasted about six hundred years, and the famous Chou (jō) Dynasty lasted almost nine hundred years, from 1122 B.C. to 255 B.C.

Shortly after the end of the Chou Dynasty the Han (hän) Dynasty came into power and ruled from 202 B.C. to 220 A.D. At one time during the Han Dynasty, Chinese rule extended from the Pacific Ocean to the Caspian Sea and from the Great Wall to Indo-China. Far to the west the Roman Empire had reached its greatest height at about the same time.

Mongolian Invasions of China

Many times in its long history China was troubled by fierce Mongolian invaders from the north called Tartars. In different parts of the north the Chinese built walls to try to keep out the Tartars. Shortly before 210 B.C. the many small stretches of wall were united and extended. Finally the Great Wall of China stretched 1500 miles across northern China. The Great Wall did succeed in keeping out the Tartars for a time. After that every strong ruler of China saw to it that the Great Wall was kept in good repair.



For more than three hundred years after the end of the Han Dynasty, China went through her "Dark Ages." No longer did she rule over a vast empire. Instead, China was divided into many small kingdoms, and often the Tartars added to her troubles. China did not disappear the way the Roman Empire did, for early in the Tang (täng) Dynasty (818 A.D. to 907 A.D.) she managed to recover from her troubles.

Shortly after the Tang Dynasty came the brilliant Sung (sōng) Dynasty (960 A.D.—1280 A.D.), which came to an end because again Mongolian invaders came from the deserts and grasslands of Central Asia. This time they were led by Genghis Khan (jě'n'giz-kän'). His armies spread terror and suffering through a great part

of Asia and eastern Europe. It took the Mongols a long time to conquer vast, rich China. It was under another Mongol, Kublai (kōō'blī), that the conquest was completed.

Kublai, who was called the Great Khan, learned to love and admire Chinese ways of living. He encouraged Chinese arts and trade. He enjoyed meeting travelers who came to China. Despite many dangers and hardships a few European missionaries and traders came overland all the way to China. Among the most famous Europeans to reach the court of Kublai Khan near Peking was Marco Polo. The Great Khan liked and trusted Marco Polo and sent him on many important missions throughout his vast empire.

During the Ming Dynasty (1369 A.D.—1644 A.D.) China again gained control of her country. A long dynasty called



An early Chinese emperor at his court.

the Manchu (mǎn'chōo'), or Ching, followed the Ming Dynasty. The Manchu Dynasty ruled in China from 1644 to 1912. The Manchus came from Manchuria, north of China. Since the overthrow of the Manchu Dynasty the people of China have been trying to make an up-to-date republic of their country.

FAMILY AND VILLAGE LIFE

Through the Manchu Dynasty the people of China continued to live very much as they had for many centuries. The family was of greatest importance in Chinese ways of living. In China, when a young man grew up and married, he usually did not set up a new home. Instead he and his wife lived in his parents' home. His brothers also brought their wives home with them. When a daughter married, she and her husband lived in

What does this scene tell you of early Chinese family life?



the home of the husband's family. This way of living often made Chinese families very large.

The oldest man was usually the head of the Chinese family. When he died, his oldest son became head of the family. Everything belonged to the family. Work was done for all, and the sick, the old, or the helpless members of the family were cared for by the family.

When people died, food and clothing were put into their graves, as it was believed that they would need these things. In well-to-do homes there was a hall where hung the portraits of the ancestors of the family. This hall was the very center of the Chinese family's life. Even the poorest home had some spot set aside for paying respect to the ancestors of the family.

Through their long history most of the Chinese have been farmers, living in their mud-brick houses in the thousands of villages of China. Year after year the farmers planted their fields of rice and millet just as their ancestors had done before them. The women and girls cooked and sewed and patiently fed the greedy silkworms. Many of the well-to-do Chinese lived in stone houses built around a courtyard or series of courtyards. They enjoyed their gardens and lovely pools and the poetry, art, and gracious manners of China.

Living in a Chinese family taught each one to be considerate of others. It gave each person a warm, safe feeling. The Chinese family was almost like a little country within a large country. In some ways such great loyalty to the family prevented the Chinese from knowing or caring about their own vast country. It also shut them off from the wide and interesting world beyond their homes and villages.

CHINA'S TRADE

During the Han Dynasty the Chinese found out that they were not the only civilized people in the world. Through their traders and travelers they learned that there were great lands

218 and cities far to the west of them. They knew, too, that southwest of them lay vast India, for they carried on a lively trade with India.



The Chinese have always made beautiful things. This figurine shows a girl playing a musical instrument.

Rome had vague ideas about China and called it *Serica*, or the “Land of Silk.” Chinese and Roman merchants did not trade directly with each other. Instead, Chinese silk, furs, and iron were carried westward over the great Silk Route across mountains and deserts to Tashkend, where they were traded to the Parthians and other go-betweens for glassware, jewels, woolen cloth, perfume, dyes, and gold and silver coins of the lands around the Mediterranean Sea. Eventually wars in western Asia shut off most of the trade over the Silk Route, but trade by way of the seas grew greater.

During the Tang and Sung dynasties tall majestic boats called “junks” sailed from China to Japan and to the many islands off the southeast coast of Asia. They also sailed to India and Ceylon and as far west as the mouth of the Euphrates River. Not since the days of the Roman Empire had there been ships to compare with the Chinese junks. The largest junks had four decks and four masts with high, square sails. The oars were so large that it took a dozen men to swing some of them. The Chinese carried compasses and so they dared to sail far from shore. To the ports of Canton and Fuchow and Hangchow in China came Arab, Persian, and Jewish traders to buy silk and porcelains, ginger, jade, and tea.

After 1516 more and more strange new boats were appearing in the busy ports of China, for in that year the first Portuguese boat arrived, noisily firing its guns in salute. In a short time other boats from Europe were coming to trade. Christian missionaries came, too, and a few of them were allowed to live and teach in China. At last even the emperor in Peking allowed the Jesuit missionary, Father Ricci (rǐ'chǐ), to come to his court.

By the time the Manchus ruled China, Europeans from many countries wanted to trade and travel there. The Chinese did not like the way some of the Europeans behaved. For a long time European ships were allowed to dock only in the port of Canton.

All during the years of the Manchu Dynasty, China tried to shut herself away from the rest of the world. She felt that the way of life that had come down through many centuries was all she needed and that the outside world had very little to offer her. The Europeans had better weapons than the Chinese, and finally they compelled the Chinese to open their doors to them.

WHAT CHINA HAS CONTRIBUTED TO THE WORLD

It was no wonder Europeans were so eager to carry on trade with China, for so many beautiful and useful things were made by the Chinese. A visit to almost any large museum in our country will show how skilled the Chinese were in producing silks, porcelain, jewelry, carved jade, rugs, bronzes, and interesting



Junks and smaller boats sailed the rivers of old China, as they do today.

architecture. The Chinese were a very clever people. As early as 2700 B.C. they were using boats, wheeled carts, musical instruments, a calendar, picture-writing, and were making pottery. According to their legends, they had even found out how to make the most prized fabric of all time, silk.

Silk

An old Chinese legend says that a queen discovered that the little worm which feeds on mulberry leaves spun a cocoon which could be unwound into a strong, shining thread. She taught the women of the kingdom how to take care of the silk-worms so that they would spin around their bodies a thread a thousand yards long. The queen then taught the women how to twist threads together and to weave the twisted threads into silk cloth. The Chinese discovered how to dye the silk with many colors and how to embroider it with birds and bats, flowers and dragons. Ever since those early days, silk-making has been one of the chief industries of China.



Some Important Inventions

It was probably during the Chou Dynasty that the Chinese invented the *compass*. There is a story that men from Indo-China had come to visit a Duke of Chou. When they were ready to return home they told the duke they feared they did not know the way and might get lost. The duke took them into the courtyard of his palace and gave them chariots for their homeward trip. On the front of each chariot stood a tiny figure of a man with outstretched hand. No matter how the chariot was turned, the hand always pointed south. Many years later this important invention spread from China to other lands. The compass we use has a needle which always points north. The invention of the compass made it possible for men to go exploring much farther than they would have dared to go without it.

From the Mongols the Chinese probably learned about gunpowder. They invented guns and cannon in which to use the gunpowder. For the most part, however, the Chinese used gunpowder wisely. With it they made beautiful fireworks, like rockets that burst into flowers and stars, dragons, birds, and butterflies. To this day the Chinese are noted for their interesting fireworks.

It was during the Sung Dynasty that the Chinese began to make the exquisite *porcelains* for which they have ever since been famous. Their potters had discovered that a kind of clay, called kaolin, when mixed with ordinary clays would produce thin, delicate porcelain. They became so famous for their highly glazed, exquisite dishes and vases that during the Ming Dynasty the emperor had great porcelain factories built near Nanking to supply the large demand. Even today we honor the potters of China whenever we use the word "chinaware."

One of China's most important gifts to the world was the invention of *paper*. According to Chinese history, paper was invented during the Han Dynasty in 105 A.D. by Ts'ai Lun. In the biography of Ts'ai Lun we find this description of his invention. "In ancient times writing was generally on bamboo or on pieces of silk. . . . But silk being expensive and bamboo heavy, these two materials were not convenient. Then Ts'ai Lun thought of using tree bark, hemp, rags, and fishnets. From this time paper has been in use everywhere and is called the paper of Marquis Ts'ai."



The Chinese used paper for other things besides books. They made playing cards, lanterns, and even money from paper long before these things were in use in other countries. If no one had invented paper, only the richest people would be able to afford newspapers, books, and magazines today.

In the Sung Dynasty the Chinese made another important contribution to the world's knowledge. When we know how much the Chinese loved learning, it is not surprising that they

worked out a good way to record their ideas. On a smooth block of wood they carved pictures and the symbols, or “characters,” of their language. Then they covered the block of wood with lamp-black ink, placed a sheet of paper over the block and brushed it firmly with a clean brush. When they lifted the paper off the block, they had made a printed page.

Wisdom and Education

From China the world has learned much wisdom. It was during the Chou Dynasty that the great Chinese teacher, Confucius (kōn·fū’shǐ·ŭs), lived and taught. Confucius is the most honored man in China’s long history. This famous teacher was born in 551 B.C. in a village in Shantung. He loved learning and the old ways of China. Many pupils came to him to learn. Even when he was past seventy Confucius said, “I never get tired of learning and I never get tired of teaching.”

Does this Chinese festival look like a fourth of July celebration in your town?

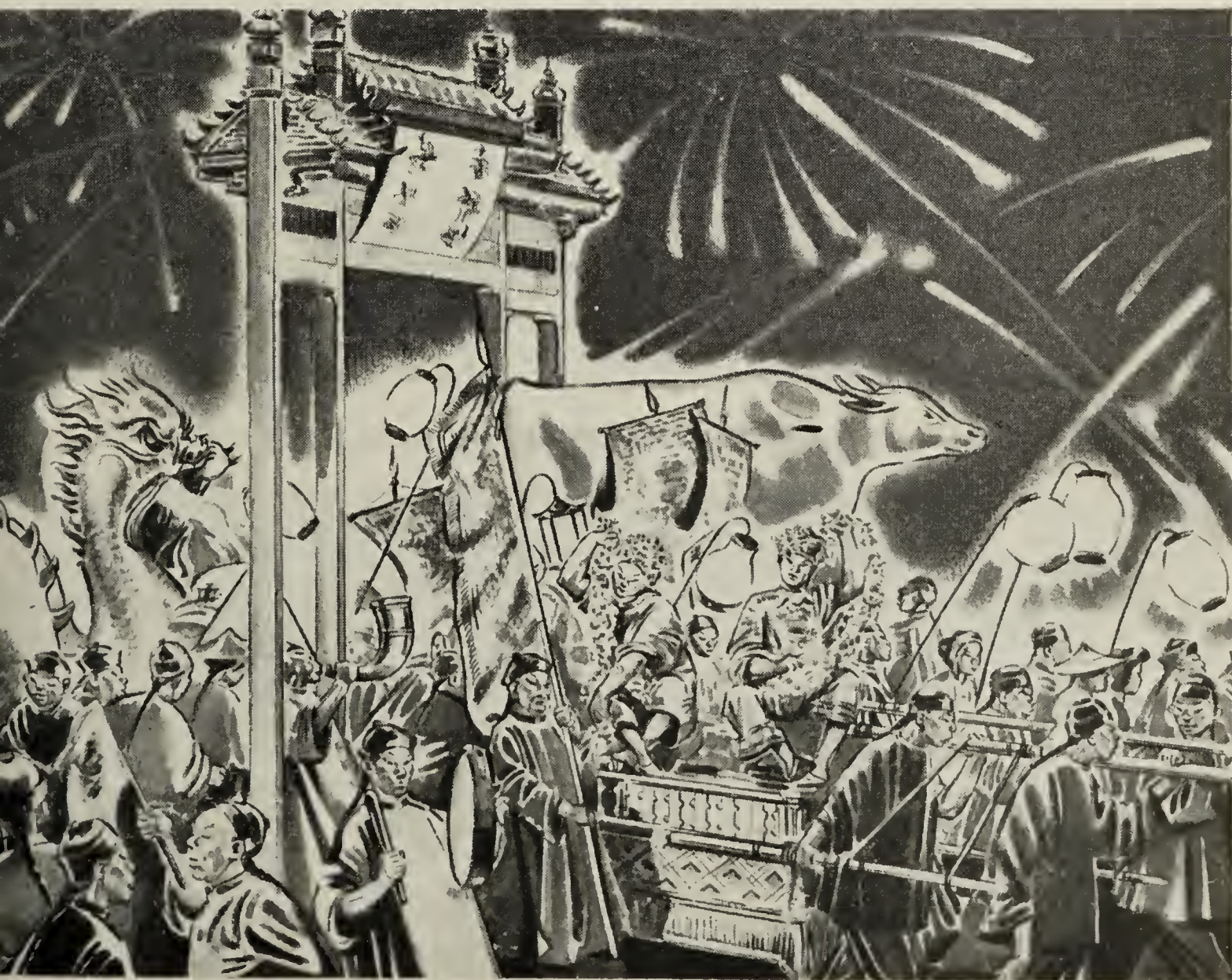


The history, ceremony, poetry, music, and religion of early China was gathered together in books called the *Classics*. Credit for the *Classics* is often given to Confucius, but they were probably the work of many Chinese writers. After his death the followers of Confucius put his wise sayings into a book. Two of these sayings are "If you can get along with your neighbor, the world as a whole can get along," and "What you do not want done to yourself, do not do unto others."

Scholars have always occupied the highest place in Chinese life, and the Chinese have loved and honored their literature. Every official and every scholar was well acquainted with the *Classics* and the sayings of Confucius. Some scholars even knew these famous books completely by heart.

Throughout the land, examinations based on the *Classics* were given. Any Chinese boy who had ability and studied hard could take the examinations, which led to the highest positions

What do you see that is ancient, and what that looks modern?



in the government. Through the centuries, of course, most of the Chinese were farmers and craftsmen who ploughed their fields, planted rice and millet, and made by hand the things they needed. Very few of them went to school. Occasionally, however, a poor boy did succeed in passing the examinations and got a government office or lived the life of a scholar. The Chinese knew the truth of one of Confucius' teachings, "Where there is education, there is no difference in class."

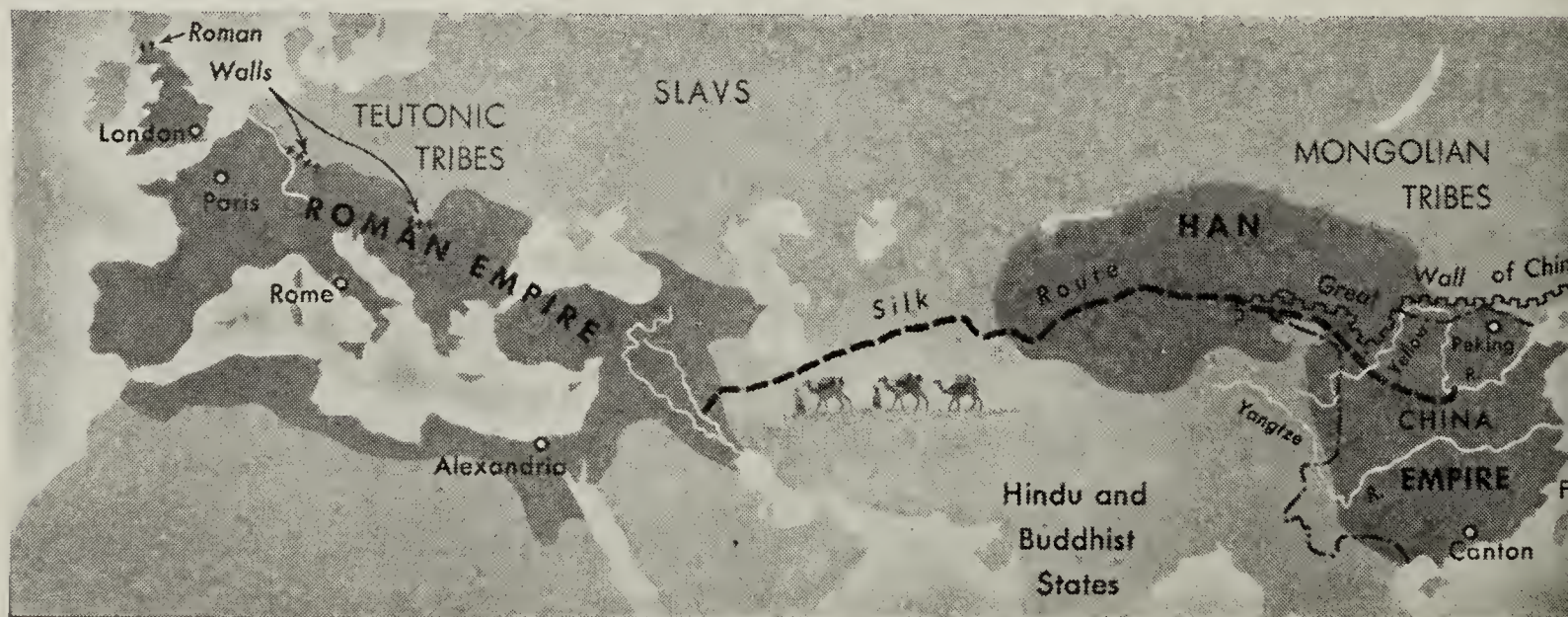
THE SPREAD OF INDIAN AND CHINESE IDEAS

The ways of living developed in India and China spread far east of those lands. Indian ideas spread to Burma, Siam, and Indo-China. The name "Indo-China" shows us that Indian and Chinese ideas mixed in that land.

While the Roman Empire was breaking up and Western Europe seemed to be going to sleep, there were three or four important empires in the islands we now call the East Indies. For hundreds of years traders and settlers from southern India pushed their boats among the hundreds of islands off the coast of southeastern Asia. They brought with them cotton cloth, jewels, and dyes to trade for spices. They also brought their old stories, their way of writing, and their religion.

If a European could have visited among these islands about the year 800, he would have been surprised to see busy cities, where workers were weaving beautiful cloth, carving wood and stone, and making ornaments of gold and silver. In the busy

The Chinese Empire and the Roman Empire controlled most of the world.



ports he would have watched tall heavy junks from China, loaded with tea, silk, and porcelains; Arab ships bringing jewels and rugs from Persia; vessels from India carrying calico and muslin; and many native boats bringing pepper and cinnamon and ginger to the markets.

As early as 1122 B.C. a Chinese leader with many followers marched eastward into Korea, "Land of the Morning Calm." This group of Chinese brought with them Chinese ways of farming, arts and crafts, and silk-making. The Chinese way of writing also came to Korea. In time, the people of Korea worked out an alphabet suitable to their own language. Buddhism and Confucian teachings also came to Korea from China, as well as many ideas in art and architecture.

Along the east coast of Asia, beyond the Yellow Sea and the China Sea, stretches a chain of 4223 islands. These islands are called Japan. The Japanese call their land Nippon, which means the "Land of the Rising Sun." To these islands came many kinds of people and so the Japanese people have a very mixed ancestry. Many Chinese ideas were gradually added to the way of life of these people. Chinese art and writing, Chinese pottery, Chinese ways of farming, and, of course, the silkworm spread to Japan. Buddhism, which came to China from India, came to Japan from China and became one of the important religions of Japan.



OUR INHERITANCE FROM THE FAR EAST

More than half the people of the world live in India, China, southeastern Asia, and the thousands of islands off the coast of Asia. Their ways of living have come from a long and interesting past. India and China have the longest continuous histories in the world. To their neighbors many of their ways of living spread. We, too, inherit ideas from this part of the world in art, in literature, and in religion. From India we have inherited important ideas in arithmetic. From China we have received

silk, the compass, paper, beautiful porcelains, tea, and ideas about the way people should live together in harmony.

THINGS TO DO

I. QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS. While you are studying the history of the interesting civilization of the Chinese, find the answers to these questions and others your teacher may ask.

1. About when and where do scholars think Chinese civilization started? How do the Chinese divide their long history?
2. What part of the world did the Chinese rule at the time the Roman Empire was at its height?
3. What part did the Mongols play in China's history? How did the Mongols cause the Great Wall to be built?
4. What have family and village life been like in China's history?
5. With what parts of the world has China traded at different times in its history?
6. What story do the Chinese tell about the invention of silk? The invention of the compass? The invention of paper? Why do the dishes you use every day remind you of China?
7. What system of writing did the Chinese long ago work out? What way of printing did they invent?
8. Why is Confucius one of China's greatest men?
9. To what parts of Asia did Indian ways of living spread? To what parts of Asia did Chinese ways of living spread?
10. After about 1600, why did the Chinese and the Japanese try to shut themselves away from the rest of the world?

11. What do we inherit in our ways of living from China and other countries of southeastern Asia?

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II. HISTORY DEFINITIONS AND NEW WORDS. Write definitions for these expressions.

Chinese Dynasties

the Silk Route

The Great Wall

Indo-Chinese Civilization

the Classics

Mongols

III. MAP STUDY. With the help of geography and wall maps, locate the places mentioned in "Chinese Civilization." Learn to spell all the names correctly.

IV. ALONG THE SILK ROUTE. Make a picture map of the Silk Route. Read again about the Silk Route on page 218 to help you decide what pictures to put on your map.

V. COMPARISONS. You will find it interesting to have a class discussion to compare the following:

Chinese family life with the family life in India

Confucius with Buddha

Chinese writing with Egyptian writing and Babylonian writing

Chinese writing materials with Egyptian and Babylonian writing materials

Chinese junks with Roman ships

Genghis Khan with Julius Caesar

The sayings of Confucius with the sayings of Jesus

The Chinese classics with the *Iliad* and the *Odyssey*

The Mongol invasion of China with the Mongol invasion of India

Kublai Khan with Alexander the Great

VI. LET'S ACT IT OUT. Divide your class into groups to act out the following scenes. You may act them silently

and have the class guess what you are doing, or you may prepare simple scripts. You do not need to memorize parts, but be familiar enough with your part so that you can do a good job at acting.

The Legend about Silk

Making a Block Print

The Visit to the Duke of Chou

A Trip on a Junk

Confucius and His Followers

In a Chinese Village

An Adventure near the Great Wall

In a Chinese Home

On the Silk Route

Studying the Classics

Ts'ai Lun and His Invention

Life in the East Indies

VII. THE TIME LINE OF CHINA. In your notebook make a time line of China's history. Are you going to try to show some of the important dynasties on your time line? Appoint a class committee to prepare a time line for the bulletin board.

VIII. NEW MENUS. In your notebook prepare menus of the foods eaten in China, Japan, East Indies, and India.

IX. A TRAVEL FOLDER. Pretend that you run a travel agency and are trying to interest tourists in visiting China, Korea, Japan, Indo-China, Siam, Malaya, the East Indies, and the Philippines. Collect pictures that show the buildings, scenery, and ways of living in these lands. Prepare a booklet that contains the pictures. Write short paragraphs about each of the important countries telling about their history and attractions for travelers. Consult geographies, encyclopedias, and magazines for help. Display your booklets for the class to enjoy.



Chapter 14

The Indians of the Americas

Unknown to the ancient Egyptians and Babylonians, Greeks and Romans, and Hindus and Chinese, there were two large continents on the other side of the world. Hundreds of years later, European explorers found these continents when they were trying to reach Asia by sailing west. They named the red-skinned people they found Indians, because they thought the islands they discovered were near India. A few years later, the New World they found was given the name America.

Where the Indians came from is a question that can not be answered with certainty. It is thought that twenty or twenty-five thousand years ago groups of Stone Age men crossed from the northeast tip of Asia to the northwest tip of North America. At that time there may have been a land connection between Asia and America. Gradually the descendants of these wanderers from Asia spread out over the American continents. In time, hundreds of tribes of the red men lived in the mountains and plateaus and plains and woodlands of the Americas.

There were many Indian tribes in the Americas, each with its own ways of living. We shall read more about these Indians

when we study American history. But the story of the Mayas and Aztecs and Incas should be told here, for they had built up important civilizations long before the New World had been discovered.

CIVILIZATION OF THE MAYAS

John L. Stephens, an American traveler living in New York in the 1830's, read an account of mysterious buried cities in Yucatan (yōō'kä·tan') and Guatemala (gwä'tē·mä'la). Yucatan is in southern Mexico, and Guatemala is a small country in Central America, south of Mexico. Stephens was so interested that he decided to find out all he could about the Mayas (mä'yās), as the Indians who had lived there were called. He persuaded a British artist to go with him to make drawings of anything they might find.

"It is impossible to describe," wrote Stephens, "the interest with which I explored these ruins. I leaned over with breathless anxiety while the Indians worked, and an eye, an ear, a foot, or a hand was disinterred; when the machete (mä·chā'tā) rang against the chiselled stone, I pushed the Indians away and cleared out the loose earth with my hands. The beauty of the sculpture, the solemn stillness of the woods, disturbed only by the scrambling of monkeys and the chattering of parrots, the desolation of the city, and the mystery that hung over it, all created an interest higher, if possible, than I had ever felt among the ruins of the Old World."

With gloves to protect his hands from the mosquitoes, the artist drew some of the fascinating discoveries he and Stephens made in the jungles. Two years later, Stephens' book, *Incidents of Travel in Central America, Chiapas, and Yucatan* was published. From then on the world knew that Indians living in America had built up civilizations which compared with the ancient civilizations of Africa, Asia, and Europe.

The Cities of the Mayas

Archaeologists from many lands have toiled years to learn about the Mayas and the other Indians of the Americas. From their excavations and studies we can almost see the Mayan cities in the green jungles of Guatemala and Yucatan. The streets and courts of such cities as Copan and Chichen Itza were paved with stone or with white cement. With stone and cement these ancient builders also made covered canals and underground sewers. The canals and sewers helped to keep their cities clean and dry.

In the center of a Mayan city stood the palaces and the temples, built on top of large pyramids. In these cities workers wove beautiful cotton garments, with embroidered borders and tasseled fringes. They made finely designed and decorated pottery and hammered out ornaments of gold. The Mayan workers were some of the best sculptors of all the early civilizations.

The Mayans built fine cities and made many beautiful things.



The Mayan Gods

A figure that the Mayan sculptors carved very often was that of a feathery serpent which represented the greatest of their



A Mayan god found in Mexico.

gods. This god the Mayas pictured with the body of a serpent, the feathers of the beautiful quetzal (kēt·säl') bird, the teeth of a jaguar (jäg'wär), and such ornaments as ear plugs, nose plugs, and head-dress. In his jaws he held a human head. To the Mayas this god was breath and life and lord of the sky. They thought of him as a half-human being who had started their ways of living. According to legends told among the Indians in Central America and farther north in the Valley of Mexico this god

had come without warning from an unknown land and had left without warning to travel to some unknown land. At some future time he was to return to his people.

The Mayas as Thinkers

The Mayan priests performed many complicated ceremonies to their gods. Of course they had to know when each of the gods was to be worshipped, so they carefully studied the heavens. In some ways the Mayas became as good astronomers as were the Chaldeans and the Greeks thousands of miles to the east of them. With no instruments to help them, they worked out very remarkable calendars. It was not until after 1700 A.D. that Europeans began to use a calendar as accurate as one that the Mayas had figured out in the jungles of Central America. In the Mayan calendar the earliest year was 3373 B.C., but they

really started recording the events of their history from 613 B.C. To this day there are Indians in the remote villages of Guatemala who use the old Mayan calendar.

The Mayas also worked out very good ideas in arithmetic. Probably long before the Hindus invented the zero, the Mayas had thought up that important idea. A shell stood for zero. A dot stood for 1; two dots stood for 2; a bar stood for 5; a bar and a dot stood for 6; two bars stood for 10. They could reach far into the billions with their system of numbers.

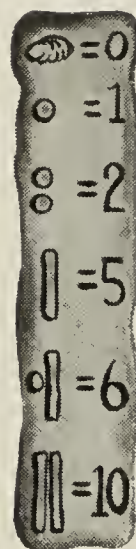
So far scholars have deciphered only a few of the Mayan hieroglyphs. It is not likely that there will ever be a "Rosetta Stone" to help them with this puzzle. The Mayas not only engraved their hieroglyphs on stone, but they also wrote books and used various colors to draw them.

The Mayas are sometimes called the Greeks of the New World because they were such good artists and thinkers. They also deserve the title because many of their ideas and ways of living spread to Indian tribes living hundreds and even thousands of miles away from Yucatan and Guatemala.

THE TOLTECS AND AZTECS

Shortly after 500 A.D. the Mayas moved to the lowlands of Yucatan. There they built still more cities and grew their corn and cotton and maguey (măg'wā), a large cactus plant for which they found many uses. Perhaps they moved because their ways of farming wore out the soil, or it may be that other Indians pushed them out of their cities and farmlands. About 1000 A.D. the Toltecs (töl'těks), Indians, who came from Mexico, invaded Yucatan, and the Mayan civilization declined. By the time Columbus discovered America, the fine cities of the Mayas lay under a thick growth of jungle vines and trees.

We know that the Toltecs were great pyramid builders, for the archaeologists have uncovered many of their pyramids in Mexico. It is difficult today to study the old Toltec and Aztec



234 remains because the Spaniards tore down so many of their pyramids and buildings. The Spanish conquerors used the stone to build their churches and houses and to make walls around their large farms or haciendas (ä·syën'däs).

The Aztecs

In time, the Toltecs were conquered by a neighboring group of Indians, the Aztecs (ăz'těks). The Aztecs brought together many Indian groups in the Valley of Mexico into a union, or confederacy. In the marshes of Lake Texcoco, the Aztecs built a beautiful city. Mexico City stands today on the ruins and foundations of the ancient Aztec city. The Aztecs built good roads over the lake to their city and irrigated the land.

These Indians of Mexico worked gold, silver, copper, bronze, and precious stones into tools, ornaments, and utensils that were almost as beautiful as those of the Greeks. They wore cotton garments finely woven, brilliantly dyed, and embroidered with



needlework. They even made improvements in the excellent Mayan calendar. They painted their hieroglyphs on parchment, cloth, and maguey paper. They had libraries of books made in rolls of folded strips. Unfortunately, the Europeans who came to the New World burned all the books they could find. Today there are only thirteen known books in existence written by the ancient people of Mexico and Central America.

Most of the people under Mayan, Toltec, and Aztec rule lived in simple straw-covered huts. It was they who grew the corn and beans and maguey and cotton on which all the people depended for their food and clothing. The well-to-do, the priests, and the ruling class lived much more comfortable lives. The people in the palaces surrounded themselves with gorgeous birds and flowers. They covered their dining tables with fine white cloths, and their table manners were highly refined.

A priest is appealing to an Aztec god. You can see, too, the feather work used by the Aztecs.



Aztec Religion

The Aztecs, like the Mayas, had many gods. One of the religious practices of the Aztecs horrified the Spaniards greatly. The Aztecs sacrificed human beings to their gods. When the Aztecs fought in battles, they were very careful not to kill their enemies. Instead, they captured them and used them later for sacrifices to their gods. Then they strung the skulls on high palisades near their temples. It was difficult for the Aztecs to understand why the Spaniards were so horrified at their way of carrying on war. When the Europeans went to war, they did their best to kill their enemies in battle. To the Aztec mind there was little or no difference between the way they and the Europeans carried on war.

CIVILIZATION IN THE HIGH ANDES



By way of the narrow Isthmus of Panama, Indians long ago slowly worked their way from North America to South America. To this day there are tribes of Indians in South America who still live in Old Stone Age ways. There are other tribes with New Stone Age ways of living. Long before Columbus reached America, there were Indians in South America who had civilized ways of living. On the narrow coastal plain of northwestern South America and high in the Andes Mountains the archaeologists have found the remains of their civilizations. Sometimes in their long history the lowland Indians and the mountain Indians exchanged goods and ideas. Sometimes they fought one another. At other times the different groups lived very much to themselves.

The Incas

High up near Lake Titicaca (tē'tē·kă'kă), on the "roof of the world," lived a group of Indians called the Incas (ing'kās). They claimed that they were descendants of the Sun God and

considered themselves superior to their neighbors. By the time the Europeans arrived in South America, the Incas had spread their rule far north and south of Lake Titicaca and along the coastal plain. Their empire extended from the southern part of what is now Colombia to the middle of Chile.

The story of the rule of the Incas from about 1100 A.D. to the time of the coming of the Europeans was told at great length to the Spaniards and written down by them. For that reason we know much more about the Incas than we do about the Indian groups that they had conquered. The Incas knew how to rule people and to organize a government. Probably about eight million people lived in their long, narrow empire, and their capital had 200,000 inhabitants.

The chief god of the Incas was the Sun God. They worshipped him with beautiful hymns and built a magnificent temple to him. The early Spaniards who saw the temple said that only two buildings in all Spain could compare with it in splendor. The rays of the rising sun fell directly on the gold room of the Sun God and filled it with a wonderful light. Gold, "the tears wept by the Sun," was everywhere in the temple.

Inca Roads

From Quito (kē'tō), in what is now Ecuador, to northern Chile ran two magnificent roads. One road followed the seacoast; the other wound over the towering Andes Mountains. In many places the road builders had to make steep steps in the mountainsides. Across the deep gorges they built swaying bridges of thick "cables," woven from tough plant fibers. The thick cables were bound together and covered with planks. From the two main roads of the Inca Empire ran many side roads to the seacoast and to the jungles of the Amazon River.

The most exciting time on an Inca road occurred when the ruler, who was called the One Inca, made a tour of his empire. Then not a twig or pebble could be seen on the road, for it must



be made clean and smooth for the ruler and his procession. The One Inca sat in a rich litter fitted with poles and curtains and decorated with gold and silver and precious stones. Only the most important lords of the empire were allowed to carry the royal litter. Around the litter marched the ruler's guard. In front of the royal litter went 5000 slingers, and in the rear followed the lancers. Ahead of the procession went faithful runners who announced to the people the approach of the One Inca. When he passed in his gorgeous litter the people all shouted, "Very great and powerful Lord, son of the Sun, thou only art Lord! All the world in truth hears thee."



Everyday Life among the Incas

As far as we know, the Incas and other Indians of the Andes did not work out a system of writing. They did invent a good calendar, and they worked out a decimal system. They kept very careful records of population, of crops, of land, and of taxes. They kept these records by means of knotted colored strings, called quipus (kē'pōos).

Inca farmers grew corn and potatoes. They used the llama to carry loads and his wool for clothing. The patient llamas, loaded with wool and gold and silver, came down the mountainsides and went back up laden with corn and fish and other things from the valleys and seacoast. Patient Indians, too, carried heavy loads up and down the mountains.

The Incas organized the people of their empire very firmly. Everyone worked for the state; no one was allowed to own property except his personal belongings. Everyone worked, and no one was allowed to go hungry. The Incas and the people they had conquered were such good farmers and craftsmen that there was seldom want in their land. There was one great disadvantage to the strong and thorough rule of the Incas. It gave the people little or no freedom. Their kind of government did not encourage the people to become self-reliant citizens.

WHAT THE AMERICAN INDIANS GAVE TO US

All the world benefits from the gifts the Indians of the Americas have made to the foods we eat every day. Indian maize, or corn, is a very important food. From its warm tropical home it spread to many parts of the New World long before the Europeans reached these shores. The Indians gave the world the white potato and the sweet potato. Peppers, tomatoes, bananas, strawberries, pineapples, chocolate, and many kinds of beans and other foods grew in the Americas before they arrived on tables in other parts of the world. The Europeans found the Indians in Mexico and the West Indies water-proofing their clothes with the sap of certain trees. The Indians called the hardened sap "catchhook." We call it "rubber."

About 22,000,000 people living in the Americas today are



Can you tell from this picture how the Incas farmed?



descendants of the Indians who lived here long before explorers and settlers came from across the seas.

THINGS TO DO

I. QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS.

1. What have archaeologists found out about the cities the Mayas built in Central America?
2. What kind of calendar did the Mayas work out? What ideas in arithmetic did they use? Why are scholars unable to read the writing of the Mayas?
3. Why are the Mayas sometimes called the Greeks of the New World?
4. Who were the Aztecs and what were some of the things they could do?
5. Where was the empire of the Incas?
6. What were Inca roads like and what might one see on an Inca road?
7. What were the good things about life among the Incas? What was the chief disadvantage?
8. What have the Indians of the Americas given to our ways of living?

II. THE TIME LINE OF THE AMERICAN INDIANS. Make a time line of American Indian history in your notebook.

III. INDIAN GODS. Appoint a committee to make a picture chart of the gods of the Mayas, Aztecs, and Incas.

IV. NEW FOODS ON THE MENU. Make a list of the foods eaten by the Indians. Star the foods you enjoy eating.

LET'S REVIEW

I. COMPLETE YOUR RECORD. After you have finished some of the following activities, you are ready to com-

plete your record of "Civilizations Around the World." Make a table of contents and a cover.

- II. A MATCHING TEST. Copy the words in Column I on a sheet of paper. Find the words in Column II that match the words in Column I and put the correct letter beside the right word in Column I.

Column I	Column II
1. Taj Mahal	a. a Chinese thinker
2. Dynasty	b. Inca counting device
3. Mayas	c. stories and poems of India
4. Confucius	d. "gem of buildings"
5. Aztecs	e. a thinker of India
6. Hindus	f. Indians of Central America
7. <i>Vedas</i>	g. Indians of South America
8. Guatama Buddha	h. a line of Chinese rulers
9. quipu	i. Indians of Mexico
10. Incas	j. a religious group of India



- III. THE HALL OF FAME. Decide what persons in this unit should be placed on the Honor Roll.

- IV. HEADLINES. Make believe that you are newspaper reporters. Decide on the ten most important events in Unit IV. Write ten headlines that tell of these events. Put the best headlines in your Class Book.

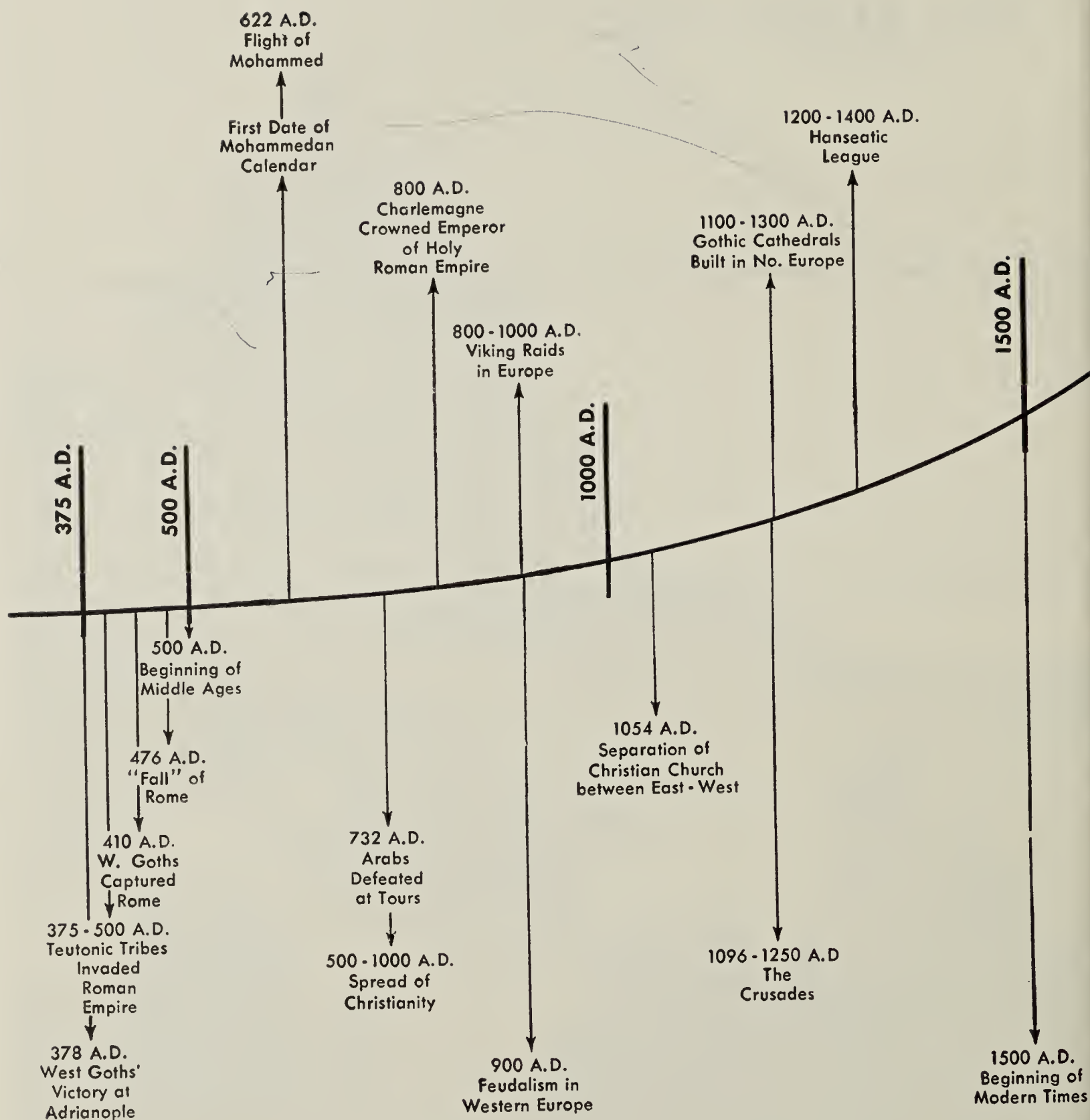
V. LET'S READ.

Folk Tales from China by Lim Sian-Tek, John Day Company
Here is India by Jean Kennedy, Charles Scribner's Sons
Princess of Yucatan by Alice Alison Lide, Longmans, Green and Company, Inc.
Tupak of the Incas by Philip Means, Charles Scribner's Sons

Unit 5



The Middle Ages





Chapter 15

The Breakup of the Roman Empire

During the days of the Roman Empire the Teutons lived in the plains and forests of northern Europe. They were blue-eyed, light-haired people, tall and strong. The Teutons lived in tribes. Each tribe had a name and was ruled over by a king. Our word *king* comes from the language of these tribes. Their village homes were simple huts which were easily moved. They did little farming but depended on their flocks and herds for food. They made crude weapons and simple tools. The women wove coarse woolen cloth from which they made the family clothes. Their wagons had wheels made of trunks of trees and were drawn by oxen. They did not have a written language and they carried on little trading.

The head of each Teuton family was a warrior. When they went into battle, the warriors of each village stayed together and not far from them were their wives and children, their flocks and herds and simple household goods. The Teutons were fierce fighters and were hard to conquer.

THE TEUTONS IN THE ROMAN EMPIRE

In the year 376 A.D., one of the strong Teutonic tribes, the West Goths, was attacked in its forest homeland by the Huns. The Huns were a tribe of Mongolians who had been pushed out of their home in Asia and were now wandering in search of food and a comfortable place to live. Fierce as the Teutons were as fighters, the Huns were fiercer, and the West Goths fled before them. Men, women, and children, carrying their belongings, came out of the forests down to the banks of the Danube and asked permission to cross over and find new homes within the Roman Empire.

The Roman soldiers stationed along the border had had experience with the Teuton warriors. They knew it would be very hard to keep the West Goths from crossing the border. Finally they let them come in.

The Teutons did not have many civilized ways of living.



West Goths in the Empire

The West Goths settled in Macedon, just north of Greece. When some of the Roman officers cheated the West Goths out of food which was rightfully theirs, the Teutons grew angry. They revolted against the Roman Empire and war broke out. The emperor's army was no match for the Teutonic warriors. At Adrianople (ā'drī·ăn·ō'p'l), in the year 378 A.D., the West Goths won a great victory over the Roman soldiers and the emperor himself was killed.

The defeat at Adrianople frightened the Romans badly. Then a new emperor pacified the victors with gifts of money and food and more land. The troublesome Goths were quiet once more. Some of their warriors entered the Roman army and many of their chiefs became Roman generals. Almost twenty years went by without warfare, but the West Goths never forgot that they were Goths. They remembered stories of their tribal heroes and their brave deeds in the northern forests as well as their victory over the Roman legions. They never became very friendly toward the Romans, and finally, when some Roman officers once more cheated the West Goths, another revolt began.



Alaric, Chief of the West Goths

Led by their very able chief Alaric (āl'a·rik), the West Goths left their Macedonian homes just as they had left their old Teutonic homes. This time they did not ask permission of any Roman guards. They just marched where they wanted to go. The barbarian Goths did not know how to behave in the civilized Roman lands. What good were beautiful buildings and good roads, libraries and schools, water clocks and vases to barbarians? Men, women, and children, plundering and destroying as they went, moved westward along the north coast of the Adriatic Sea. Though they spared most of the Roman



buildings, they destroyed works of art and literature and carried off the things which they could use.

The Fall of Rome

Led on by Alaric, the barbarians finally stood before the gates of mighty Rome herself. Could it be that the proud city



West Goth soldiers conquered and robbed the proud city of Rome.

which had ruled the Mediterranean world for hundreds of years was to be conquered at last? The West Goths could not take the city at first. Finally, however, in the year 410, they captured Rome. Many homes were robbed and a great amount of gold stolen. The West Goths showed the world that the Roman Empire was breaking up.

The West Goths wandered in Italy for a time and then crossed the Alps and went into Gaul. Some of them found land in Gaul to their liking, took possession of

it, and organized a kingdom of their own under one of their chiefs. Others of the West Goths moved on into Spain and set up a kingdom there. The mighty Roman Empire was humbled indeed. The city of Rome had been captured, and now the empire lost some of its richest lands. The people of southern Gaul and Spain were no longer ruled by Romans. Gothic warriors were their neighbors and Gothic chiefs their kings. More and more Teutonic tribes came from the north.

The End of the Roman Empire in the West

The Roman Empire, that for hundreds of years had ruled the ancient Mediterranean world, could not defend itself against

the many tribes that invaded it. Each strong Teutonic tribe claimed a part of the empire in the West and set up its own government. Finally, in the year 476 A.D., the most powerful Gothic general, Odoacer (ō'dō·ā'sēr), banished the emperor of the West and took his place. The Roman Empire of the West was gone.

Though Odoacer and some of the other Gothic emperors who followed him tried to set up a strong state around Rome, none of them succeeded. Instead, there were hundreds of years of constant warfare, and in the midst of the fighting Roman laws and many of their fine ways of living were almost forgotten in the West. While the Empire of the East continued for a thousand years, it developed a different kind of civilization. Therefore, we say that about 500 A.D., when the Western Empire was conquered by the Teutons, ancient civilization was at an end in Western Europe. Ancient Times were over, and the Middle Ages had begun.

The Middle Ages

The Middle Ages of Western Europe lasted for about a thousand years. They are called "Middle" because they came between Ancient Times and Modern Times. The first five hundred years, from 500 A.D. to about 1000 A.D., are sometimes called the Dark Ages of Western Europe, because many of the excellent ways of living of Ancient Times were forgotten and few new ways took their place.

Emperors of the East Tried to Regain the Western Empire

The emperors of the East tried to hold the empire together, but most of them were too weak to succeed. Finally, Justinian (jūs·tīn'ī·ăn), who began to rule in 527 A.D., made a great effort to reunite the western and eastern parts of the Roman Empire. Justinian was an able and energetic emperor. It was



he who collected the Roman laws and gave them in written form to the entire empire. But all of Justinian's attempts to conquer the Teutons failed.

The Eastern emperors lost land not only to the Teutons but to the Slavs north of them and to the Persians east of them. Soon a greater power invaded their lands and some of the lands conquered by the Teutons. This great power was the Arabs.

THE ARAB INVASION

Arabia is the largest peninsula in the world. It is bordered on the north by the Fertile Crescent and surrounded on the other sides by water. It is one of the driest and hottest countries in the



Conquering Arab armies marched across Asia and Africa.

world. Except for a few oases and a fertile section in the southwest called the Yemen (yēm'ēn), Arabia is largely desert.

The nomad tribes of Arabia were often under the rule of foreign powers. Egypt, Persia, Rome, and Constantinople at some time or other demanded tribute money from these desert folk. Now and then some desert chief became important for a little while. But it was not until the early Middle Ages that the Arabs became truly powerful.

Mohammed became the first great leader of the Arabs in 622. He gave them a new religion, often called Mohammedanism (see pages 282–283). The new Arabian nation with a new religion was strong and eager to gain power. In twelve short years, the Eastern Empire had lost much of its territory to the conquering Arabs. The Arabs pushed eastward, too, and conquered the Persians. On they went,

crossing the Indus River into India and across the Oxus River into the land of the Turks. The Arab armies pushed westward too, along the northern coast of Africa, conquering town after town as they went.

In 711 a band of Mohammedan soldiers crossed the narrow channel between Africa and Europe at the tip of Spain where the West Goths had set up their kingdom. After a few years, the Arabs had taken all but the northernmost part of the Iberian Peninsula and had settled down among the West Goths.

The kings of the other Teutonic tribes and the Christian church leaders of Western Europe were much disturbed by the coming of the Arabs. The bishop of Rome was afraid that if someone did not stop them, the Arabs would overrun the whole of the Christian world. The Franks at that time had a very strong leader called Charles. In 732 Charles led his army south and met the Arabs near Tours. He defeated them so soundly that they never tried again to gain any more territory in Western Europe. For this victory Charles was given a second name, Martel, which means "the Hammer."

The Arabian Empire

The Battle of Tours took place just a hundred years after Mohammed had died, and in that hundred years the Arabs had gained a great empire. The Battle of Tours checked the spread of the Mohammedans in the west, but the Arabs took many rich lands in southeastern Europe and southwestern Asia. By 732 A.D. the Arabian Empire stretched from beyond the Indus and Oxus rivers in the east to the gates of Constantinople, and included Egypt, North Africa, and Spain. At first the capital of this vast empire was the beautiful city of Damascus. Later it was changed to Bagdad on the Euphrates River.

The conquering Arabs brought with them no important ways of living of their own. They were good pupils, however. In a few years they learned most of the ways of living that the

Greeks and Romans had developed through centuries. They learned many things in Persia, India, and other parts of Asia, and improved many of these ways of living.

The Arabs wrote stories and poetry. Some of their books are still very popular today. One is the collection of stories called *The Arabian Nights* in which we find Ali Baba and the Forty Thieves. These stories give a very good picture of the brilliant life of the Arabian court.

The Arabs were good merchants. Bagdad was the chief center of Arabian trade and the bazaar, or merchants' quarter, was filled with traders from both east and west. The products of their farms and workshops were found all over Europe and the East in the Middle Ages. In spite of the excellent ways of living of the Arabs, the rulers of Western Europe did not like them. They did not want Mohammedanism to spread through

The bazaar in the city of Bagdad was filled with shoppers and traders from distant places. What were some of the products bought and sold?



Europe. They wanted to drive the Arabs out and restore the old Roman Empire.

A PLAN TO RESTORE THE ROMAN EMPIRE

In the disorder and troubles of the dark years that followed the fall of Rome and the coming of the Arabs, leaders of the Christian church longed for the good old days when the empire was strong and orderly. They realized they could get no help from the emperor in the East, for he was having a hard time to hold back the invaders. Finally, about 800, the Pope at Rome decided that if he could find a strong king in the West to help him, together they might be able to restore the empire. There was only one king in Western Europe who was strong and fearless and had a great army. He was Charles, who was king of the Franks, Teutonic tribes that had settled in Gaul.

Charlemagne

Charles was tall and strong, with an eagle nose and eyes that flashed. He was a great warrior and won victory after victory for the Franks. Because he was so powerful, he gained the title Charlemagne (shär'lě·mān), which means Charles the Great.

As he conquered new territory, Charles also tried to improve



the ways of living of his people. Charlemagne admired the great wisdom of the ruler of the Arabs and the learning of his people, and he was anxious for his own people to have a chance to study. So he ordered the churches to open schools. He himself started a school for his own children and those of his nobles. To this school he brought the best scholars and artists of his day. He tried to restore the roads, to build bridges, schools, and churches. The Pope at Rome thought that so great a king might be able to bring the Roman Empire back to life.



In the year 800 A.D., when Charlemagne was visiting in Rome, he entered the Church of St. Peter on Christmas Day to pray. While on his knees and before all the astonished people, the Pope placed a crown on Charlemagne's head. Then all Rome echoed with the shout, "To Charles Augustus, crowned of God, the great pacific Emperor, long life and victory!" These were the words with which the Roman emperors were greeted at Rome when they were crowned. Could it be that the once glorious Roman Empire of the West had been restored? Charles, the king who had just been crowned emperor, thought so.

To carry out all his plans for his people, Charlemagne needed a great many men in all parts of his empire to help him. But Charlemagne was disappointed to find that not many people were interested in another Roman Empire. The Teutonic invaders had changed the lands into which they had moved so greatly that the old Roman spirit had disappeared. Charlemagne realized that he was Emperor of Rome in name only. He knew that when he died, the empire would fall apart. In less than fifty years after the death of Charlemagne, the empire broke up. The plan of the Pope and Charlemagne to bring back the Roman Empire of the West failed. The hope of bringing order and better ways of living back to Western Europe was gone. The Dark Ages which started with the fall of the Roman Empire continued for many years.

THINGS TO DO

I. QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS.

1. Who were the Teutons? Where did they live? What were their ways of living like?
2. Why did the Teutons want to move into the Roman Empire? Into what parts of the Roman Empire did Teutons called "Goths" go? How did they show that the Roman Empire was breaking up in the West?
3. Why is the time from about 500 A.D. to about 1500 A.D. called the Middle Ages? What events that happened near 500 A.D. showed that Ancient Times had come to an end?
4. After the breakup of the Roman Empire in the West, where did part of the empire continue to exist? What problems did the emperors in Constantinople have to try to solve?
5. Who were the Arabs? What was the new religion which they believed and spread far and wide? What lands did the Arabs conquer?
6. From what different people did the conquering Arabs get many of their ways of living? What were some of the things the Arabs could do?
7. What Teutonic king tried to restore the Roman Empire? Why did he fail?
8. Why do we sometimes call the first half of the Middle Ages in Europe the "Dark Ages"? In your study of *Out of the Past*, have you found any other civilizations that went through a "Dark Age"?



- II. MAP BUILDING. Appoint a committee to make a large map of Europe. Color the boundaries of the great Roman Empire with a heavy red line. Cut out different

colored paper to paste on the parts of the empire that were captured by the Teutonic tribes and those that were invaded by the Arabs.

- III. **TEUTONIC LEGENDS.** You will want to read the exciting stories about the gods, heroes, and legends of the Teutons. For which of the gods and goddesses of the Teutons are Tuesday, Wednesday, Thursday, and Friday named?
- IV. **A TIME LINE.** Reread this chapter and make a list of all the important dates in the story of the breakup of the Roman Empire. Make a time line of those events.
- V. **LET'S ACT IT OUT.** You will enjoy acting out scenes in the story of the breakup of the Roman Empire and the years following it.
- VI. **FOR YOUR COSTUME BOOK AND BOOK OF HOMES.** You will want to add pictures of the Teutons to your Costume Book and Book of Homes. Study the pictures in Chapter 15 for help.
- VII. **MORE INFORMATION.** You will enjoy finding out more about the following topics. Choose one to look up in the encyclopedia. Prepare an oral report to share what you find with your classmates.

Justinian
Odoacer

The Huns
Alaric

Charles Martel
Charlemagne



Chapter 16

Feudalism in Western Europe

When there was no strong government in Western Europe, people turned to fighting and stealing. To make matters worse, the Norsemen, or Vikings, invaded many lands in Western Europe. The Norsemen were Teutons who came from the Scandinavian peninsula. In their long, swiftly-moving boats they skirted along the shores and up the rivers. No one knew at what moment the shrill cries of these fighters would be heard attacking a village. They ransacked farms, homes, churches, and monasteries and carried away rich booty, gold, silver, jewels, and food.

From the diaries and records some people kept in those days we read descriptions of the times. "The country is laid waste so completely that where once prosperous towns were, wild animals now roam. The plain where once the harvests ripened now knows only the thistle and the sharp-thorned briar." In the midst of the fighting and disorder, the people, rich and poor alike, suffered. Famine, sickness, and death swept the countryside.

FEUDALISM



When they saw that the weak kings could not protect them, the people turned to the nearest and strongest leader for help. If they were farmers, they promised to raise food for the leader's family in order to get protection. If they were warriors, they promised to fight for their leader in exchange for food, armor, shelter, and often a piece of land. Every leader became a ruler over the people who gathered around him. Just as the people owed duties of service to their strong leader, so the leader owed duties to them. This way of living is called *feudalism* (fū'dāl·ism). Whenever strong governments break up, feudalism is apt to start.

Feudalism Divided People into Classes

There were three classes of people in Western Europe under feudal government. First there were the *nobles*, or *lords*, who were supposed to protect the people. Second, there were the *clergy*, who not only managed the churches, but helped to care for the sick, conducted schools, and even acted as judges. Then there were the common people, or *serfs*, who worked in return for protection, food, clothes, and a place to live.



It was very hard for a serf to rise out of his class. Once in a great while after doing some very brave deed for a noble, a serf was rewarded by being made a noble. Among the clergy the class system was not quite so strict. There were many rich and powerful noblemen among the clergy, and many, too, who had once been serfs.

Feudalism Was a Kind of Government

Feudalism was not only a class system, but a kind of government. The strong nobles took charge of the affairs of the community. Anyone who lived in the community, whether he was a soldier or a serf, became the subject of the head nobleman.

The nobleman often made his own laws for the community, tried and punished offenders, coined money, and collected taxes. The common people obeyed this nobleman and worked for him and his warriors in order to be protected against the Norsemen, against robbers and enemy nobles.

Feudalism Was a Way of Holding Land

Feudalism, besides being a class system and a system of government, was also a way of holding land. In Western Europe all the people were supposed to be subject to the king, and the land on which they lived was his, too. The people paid taxes to the king for the right to live on his land. In return, the king was supposed to protect the land. When the kings grew too weak to protect their lands and people, they had to find some other way to carry out their duty. Therefore, the kings gave sections of their lands to their favorite nobles. The sections were called *fiefs* (fēfs).



The serfs had to beg for help from the nobles.

When a noble accepted a fief, he swore to protect and fight for the king and to pay taxes to the king. Usually sheep, cattle, farm products, cloth, and armor were used to pay taxes. Every noble was also expected to protect his fief. The nobles often divided up their land into smaller sections, which they gave as fiefs to other nobles.

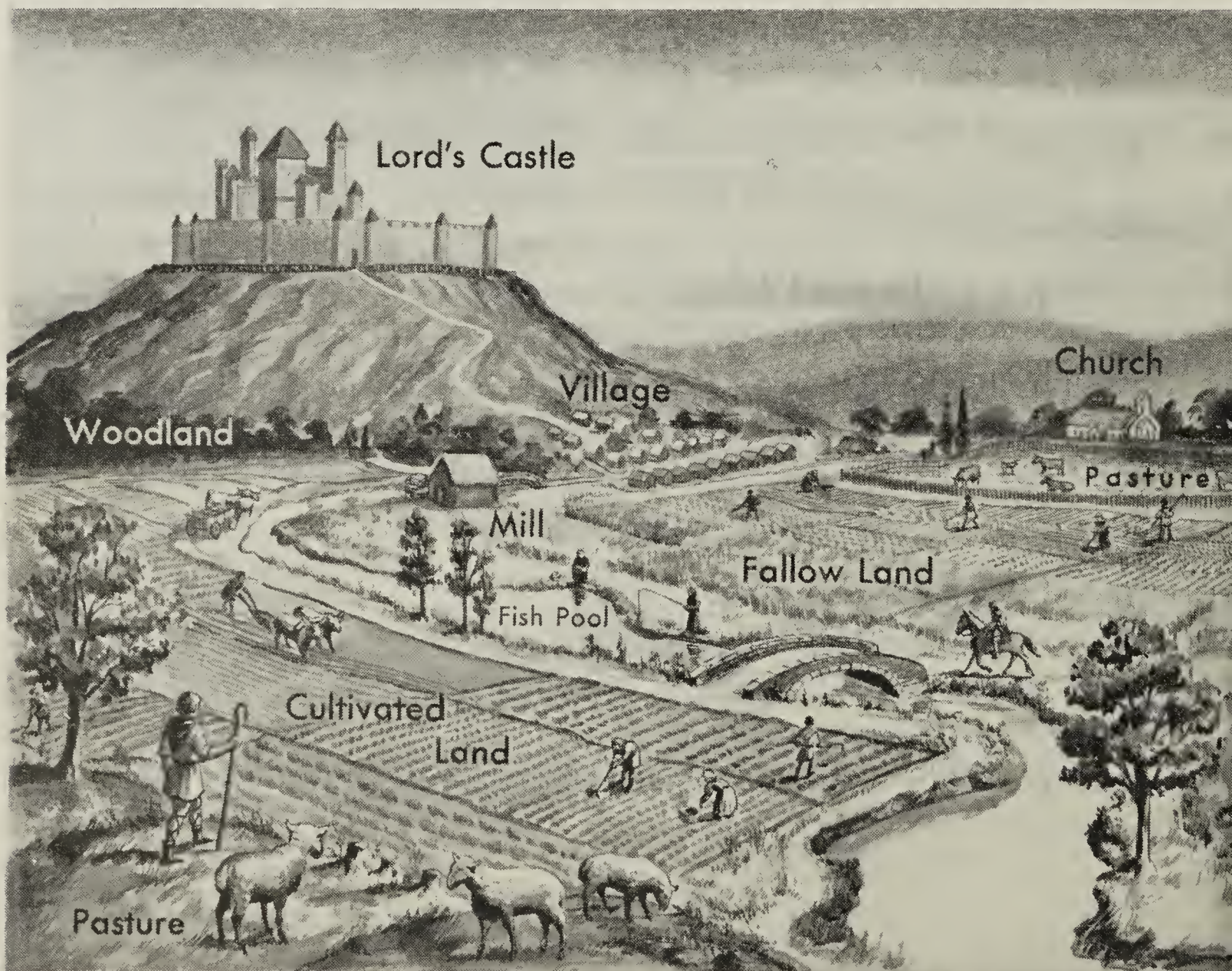
Under feudalism everyone had an overlord, that is, the noble for whom he worked or fought. The men bound to fight for a noble were called his *vassals*.

In feudal times many titles developed because of the way the

land was held. Next to the king were his sons, called princes. The fief which a prince held was called a principality. Next in order came the duke. His fief was called a duchy (dūch'ī). Next in importance was the marquis (mār'kwīs), then the earl, then the count, and last the baron. The oldest son of a noble inherited the land of his father. A knight was a Christian soldier, usually of noble birth, who served and fought for a noble. His title was Sir. The serfs had no title.

Like many other kinds of government, feudalism in Western Europe did not begin all at once. It started slowly, first in the kingdom of the West Franks during the ninth century, and then spread all over the lands which were once governed by Charlemagne. Later it was carried to Great Britain, Spain, and other parts of Europe. Finally, all of Western Europe, except the land ruled by Mohammedan Arabs, was divided into many small feudal governments ruled by nobles.

Locate the different sections of a manor. What is a "fallow" field?



Feudal Castles

The feudal lord in the Middle Ages in Western Europe ruled his fief from his castle. In the beginning castles were simply square houses. Nobles learned by sad experience, however, that their castles had to be very strong. They finally demanded stone castles. Many men studied the art of building castles and became able architects. Often they used the stones from old Roman buildings and roads for their castles.

While no two castles were exactly alike, they all followed a similar pattern. There was always a strong tower, called the donjon (dŭn'jŭn), or keep, which was the home of the noble and his family. Around the keep was a courtyard surrounded by a strong wall. On the wall there were towers, where soldiers were stationed to watch for the approach of enemies and where heavy rocks and other kinds of ammunition were kept. At first the builders made square towers, but when someone invented a battering ram that could knock square corners off easily, the builders began to make round towers. In the courtyard were the rooms for soldiers, stables for horses, the armory, and the kitchen. Beyond the courtyard was a deep ditch, or moat (mōt), which could be crossed only by a drawbridge. The drawbridge could be drawn against or within the castle gate when enemies approached.

The inside of the keep was usually as plain as the outside walls. On the first floor the noble's bodyguard of knights might live; on the second floor was the great hall used for banqueting; and on the third floor were the rooms of the lord and his family. Usually a secret staircase connected the lord's living quarters with an underground passage which the lord and lady and their family could use in case they needed to escape. Nearly every castle had a chapel somewhere within the keep or built in the courtyard.

In winter the keep was very cold. It was heated only by fire-



places which could not make the huge rooms warm. There was little furniture, and only the very richest nobles could afford to have tapestries and rugs on their walls to keep out the cold. Because their homes were so cold, the lords and ladies wore warm clothes in winter, long and full and made of the heaviest woolen homespun. They used deerskins for blankets and lambskins for furs, and slept between featherbeds.

Castle Warfare

If an enemy approached the castle, everyone prepared to do his part to save it. The serfs in the field and in the village hurried



A feudal castle was strong but uncomfortable to live in.

up the hill for protection within the castle walls. When the last serf entered the courtyard, the drawbridge was drawn into the castle gate. Then the strong iron gate, called the portcullis, was dropped down to protect the opening.

The soldiers took their places, ready to fight. Some stood by the narrow windows with their bows and arrows. Others stood on top of the wall ready to roll huge stones down on anyone who tried to climb the wall. Bonfires were built in the courtyard on

which huge kettles of tar were placed. When the tar was hot and melted it would be thrown down on the soldiers who tried to swim across the moat to reach the wall. The weapon the people in the castle feared the most was the battering ram, for it could sometimes knock holes in the walls.

There was constant warfare among the nobles, which caused great destruction. The Christian church protested against this

terrible warfare. It forbade all attacks on defenseless people, including priests, monks, pilgrims, merchants, farmers, and women. But this law was not always obeyed. The church also established a "Truce of God." All men were to cease fighting from Wednesday evening to Monday of every week, all during Lent, and on many holy days. The truce was not obeyed everywhere, nor all of the time anywhere.

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A School for Knights

Many a castle was a school for knights. When a nobleman's son was seven years old he was sent away from home to the castle of another nobleman of higher rank. There he lived as a *page* for seven years, waiting upon the ladies of the castle, learning to ride and hunt and to be brave and courteous. Sometimes he learned to read and write, too. When he was fourteen years old the boy was called a *squire*, and his duties became much

This young squire in the school for knights is being taught to ride.



harder. He became the servant of a knight attached to the castle and went with him everywhere. It was the duty of the knight to teach the squire how to fight.

When the young man was twenty-one years old he was ready to become a *knight*. To receive the title of knight, the squire had to go through a very long and solemn ceremony. The ceremony started with a bath, which stood for purity. Then the squire dressed in new clothes to show he was beginning a new life. The squire went for twenty-four hours without eating. The last night of the ceremony he entered the chapel of the castle and remained on his knees till morning, praying that he might become a worthy knight.

When the trumpeter announced the break of day, the squire came out of the chapel and entered the great hall of the keep. There before the lord's family and guests, he walked up to his lord and knelt down before him. With his hands clasped in the

Can you find the lord and his lady, the knights, and the minstrels at this castle



hands of his lord, he repeated the vows of knighthood. He swore to be brave and good, to fight for the Christian religion, to protect the weak, and honor and protect Christian women. After he had taken his vows, a white leather belt was slung around his waist and golden spurs were put upon his boots. Again he knelt before his lord, who struck him across the shoulders with the flat of his sword saying, "I dub thee knight!"

After the knighting ceremony, the new young knight, followed by all the people, went into the chapel where a solemn religious service was held. At the close of the service, laying his hand upon the altar, the knight promised to uphold and protect the church. The system of becoming a knight and living as a knight is called chivalry (shĭv'ăl·rĭ). Today when a boy or man does a kind and generous act, we say he is *chivalrous*.

Following the ceremony in the chapel, a very special tournament usually took place in the jousting field on the other side

banquet? What are they having to eat?



of the moat. A tournament was a series of contests between knights which kept them in good trim for real battles. Of course, they used blunt swords and lances. Sometimes, to add to the excitement, a knight rode out into the middle of the field and challenged anyone who wanted to fight him. Always the new knight fought with the knight whom he had served as squire. If he could unseat his teacher, the air rang with the cheers of the other knights and the ladies.

Following the tournament, the knights and ladies were invited into the great hall of the castle for a feast. The people took their places at the long table according to a certain order. The lord and his lady sat in the center. At the feast, platters of good things were placed on the long table. Course after course was served: soup, roast fowl, rabbits, pigs, wild boar, all kinds of vegetables, fruits, nuts, and sweetmeats in great quantity.

During the feast a group of singers, called minstrels, sat in a little balcony opposite the table. They played their harps, sang songs, and told jokes to add to the merrymaking. They learned by heart the stories of the great heroes and put them to music. They learned the latest news as they traveled from castle to castle and sang it to the knights and ladies gathered at the feast.

If a knight were poor, he usually became one of the soldiers of the lord who knighted him. If he were the son of a rich nobleman, he might go back to his father's castle or become the lord of a castle which his father had given him.

THE SERFS ON THE MANOR

The land around a castle was called a vil, or manor. The people who tilled the land and did the other work on the manor were called villeins, or serfs. They were not slaves, for they could not be sold off the land. The serfs formed the very largest class of people in the Middle Ages.

Usually everything needed in the castle or on the manor was made on the manor. The serfs and their sons did the farming,

the blacksmithing, the toolmaking and the building. Besides taking care of their own gardens, the wives and daughters of the serfs did the indoor work of the castle. In buildings set aside for such purposes the women did the spinning, weaving, candle-making and baking for everybody on the manor.

Farming on the Manor

The map on page 260 shows how a manor was laid out. Each manor had its village, its woods, pasture, wasteland, and three large fields. Each year one of the three fields was not planted. It lay unused, or fallow, so that by resting, the soil might become richer. In the other fields barley, wheat, rye, and oats were grown.

Each field of the manor was divided into long narrow strips. The most and the best land belonged to the lord of the castle, but every serf had some land for his own use. A serf might have ten or thirty strips, depending upon the amount of work and fees he paid his lord. The strips a serf was allowed to use were not all in one field or in the same place in the fields. In order to take care of his land and crops he had to walk all over the manor. Walking from strip to strip took much time, and the banks of rough grass which separated the strips wasted some of the land that could have been used for crops.

Farming in the Middle Ages was not only wasteful, but hard. The farming tools were no better than those of Ancient Times. Two or three days a week the peasants had to work on the strips of the lord. Because the farmers did not know how to get the best results from their land, the crops were seldom large. Often the crops might be spoiled by drought or by swarms of insects.

Homelife of the Serfs on the Manor

The serfs lived in a little village on the manor. The village was made up of twenty to forty huts, built along a narrow,



dirty lane or street. Each hut had a tiny garden spot where peas, onions, cabbage, and turnips grew. Around the village and in the garden plots were fruit trees: pears, apples, quinces, and plums.

The little hut had only one room with a small window, no chimney, and an earthen floor. The people had no beds but slept on straw spread on the floor and covered with rags. The only fire they had was kindled right in the middle of the floor and made the hut very smoky. The food was cooked in an iron kettle placed on the fire.

The meals of the peasants were very scanty. After working hard all morning in the fields, the serfs came home to a meal of thin vegetable soup, in which some salted meat had been cooked, and black bread. They had no sugar; salt had to be used sparingly; and spices were luxuries that even the lords knew little about. On special occasions the food might be sweetened

Life in the hut of the serf's family was very different from life in a noble's castle.



with a little honey. There were no plates or spoons or knives or forks, so all the family dipped their coarse black bread into the kettle of soup.

Summer or winter the clothes of the peasants were very few. All year long the children wore one woolen garment tied at the waist with a rope. Very likely the garment was not changed until it became very worn and dirty.

Famine, pests, wars, fees, and hard work made the life of the serf very hard. To add to these there was sickness. During the Middle Ages one epidemic after another swept all over Western Europe. Measles and smallpox and other diseases spread from village to village and many people died. The lord of the castle and his family became ill, too. During some plagues so many people died that a whole countryside would be deserted. People had not learned how to protect themselves from illness.



Duties of Serfs and Lord of the Manor

Besides working on the noble's strips, the serf had to give part of his own meager crops to the lord as rent for his hut and land. He had to grind his grain at the noble's mill, and his wife had to bake her bread in the noble's bake house. For these and other services the serf had to pay a fee to the noble.

The serfs seldom complained about the hard work and the fees demanded of them by the noble. They depended upon the noble for protection. If anyone made war on the castle, and that could happen any day in the unsettled Middle Ages, the serfs could find shelter in the lord's castle. If the enemy knights and soldiers burned the village and the crops on the manor, the serfs had to depend upon the lord for food and shelter until the next harvest and until they could build their tiny huts again. Sometimes the lord himself would forget his duty to the serfs and he and his knights would ride right through the fields of growing grain when they went hunting. It was hard for the serfs to see their grain spoiled, but they could not complain.



Every village had a church. It might be just a small wooden one. Sometimes, however, the serfs of a village were able to build a stone church. Then the lord might be generous and give them building materials and even bring skilled masons and



The peddler was always a welcome visitor to the feudal manor.

woodcarvers to help build the church. The stone church was even colder than the one-room hut. But the tall windows, the statues, the carved altar, the embroidered robes of the priest, and the bright candles made it seem comfortable and beautiful.

The church was the center of the life of the people. The priest blessed their fields and their harvests. When a new baby was born he was taken to the church to be christened. The priest taught the children the rules for living. When they were old enough, the children were confirmed as members of the

church. Young people were married in the church. When anyone was sick the priest was called, and if the sick person died he was buried from the church. The church had a ceremony for every important act in a person's life.

Once in a while there might be a play in the church or on a platform built in the yard of the church. The players acted out stories from the Bible. Messages from the Pope or the bishop were read by a priest in the church. Usually the priest was the only person on the manor who could read. Plays and church announcements were as important to people on the manor as books and newspapers and the radio are to us.

Sometimes on a fine Sunday morning, when the people came out of church, they found a peddler nearby. The peddler displayed his wares of cloth, knives, maybe a few spices from the East, and many trinkets. Only a very few thrifty serfs could afford to buy any of the peddler's goods, but all of them enjoyed seeing them and hearing the news that the peddler carried from village to village.

Even though the serfs had some good times, and there were holy days when they did not work, their life was very hard.

The feudal way of life lasted for hundreds of years. How it disappeared is a story you will read about later.

THINGS TO DO

I. QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS.

1. How did the Teutons make things worse for the troubled people of Western Europe?
2. What is feudalism? Why did feudalism become the way of life in Western Europe?
3. How did feudalism divide people into classes? Why was it a kind of government? A way of holding land?
4. In the feudal system, what did the nobles do? The clergy? The serfs?
5. How was a castle of the Middle Ages planned and built? What kind of activities went on in it?
6. What experiences did a young man of the Middle Ages go through to become a knight?
7. How was a manor laid out? How was farming carried on by the serfs on the manor?
8. What were the homes of the serfs like? Their clothing? Their food?
9. What were some of the troubles of the serfs on the manors of Europe?
10. What pleasant times did serfs sometimes have?



II. DEFINITIONS AND NEW WORDS.

<i>feudalism</i>	<i>vassals</i>	<i>chivalry</i>	<i>manor</i>
<i>fief</i>	<i>tapestries</i>	<i>tournament</i>	<i>keep</i>
<i>clergy</i>	<i>page</i>	<i>joust</i>	<i>moat</i>
<i>serfs</i>	<i>squire</i>	<i>minstrels</i>	<i>drawbridge</i>



III. A LIST OF IDEAS. Make a sentence list of what you have learned about feudalism as a class system, a kind of government and a way of holding land.

IV. TELL THE STORY ON A TAPESTRY. Look in the encyclopedia to find out more about the famous tapestries that were woven during the Middle Ages. They are "history books" of this period because they pictured certain events. Appoint committees to make tapestries that show ways of living in feudal times.

V. WRITE A DIARY. Pretend that you are a boy or girl who lived in feudal times. Write a diary of an important day in your life. Read your diary for the class to enjoy.

VI. BUILD A CASTLE. Appoint a committee to construct a model of a castle. Plan it very carefully. Be sure to show the lands surrounding the castle where the serfs lived.

VII. FOR YOUR COSTUME BOOK AND BOOK OF HOMES. Add pictures of the nobles and serfs to your Costume Book. Be sure to show the homes of both the rich and the poor in your Book of Homes, and pictures of knights in armor.



Chapter 17

Religion in the Middle Ages

People in all ages and places have been religious. All of the people about whom you have read in this book had some kind of religion. In the Middle Ages religion played a very important part in the lives of the people of Europe, North Africa, Arabia, and Asia Minor. Many of the people belonged to the Christian churches.

THE CHRISTIAN CHURCH

The Christian church started in the East, in Palestine, among the followers of Jesus. As it spread, it went eastward beyond the borders of the Roman Empire into Armenia, Persia, Ethiopia, India, and even to faraway China. It spread westward as far as the British Isles, and to the tribes beyond the Rhine and Danube rivers.

The clergy governed the church. Clergy, called *priests*, were in charge of thousands of small districts called parishes. In every large city there was a head priest called a *bishop*. The bishop was in charge of his own parish and the priests and parishes of his city and surrounding countryside. *Archbishops*,

or head bishops, supervised the five large districts of the empire. For a long time the emperor of Rome was the head of the church.

The Christian Church Was Divided

Constantine was the first Christian emperor of the Roman Empire, and Constantinople became the leading city of Christianity. When the Christian church began, Greek became the language of the church. The leaders of the church developed teachings, or *doctrines*, which every Christian was expected to believe. In the beginning there was one Christian church, with one language and one set of doctrines.



Not all of the Christians, however, could agree on the teachings of the church. Small groups of Christians in the East separated early from the church and set up independent churches. Later, in the Middle Ages, however, a much larger break came. The leaders of the West and the leaders of the East had many disagreements. Finally, in 1054, at the end of the Dark Ages in the West, the Western and Eastern churches completely separated.

Today we call the church of the West the Catholic Church. The Archbishop of Rome was the head of the Western Church. He was called *Pope*, a name which came from the Latin word for father, *pater*. Latin was made the official language of the church. The church in the East took the name, the Holy Orthodox Catholic Church. The Archbishop of Constantinople was the head of the Eastern Church, and it continued to use the Greek language in its services. Both the Catholic Church and the Eastern Church considered themselves orthodox and catholic. Both churches are strong today.

THE EASTERN CHURCH

The civilization which grew up around Constantinople was called Byzantine from the earlier name of Constantinople. It

was a mixture of the ways of living of the Greeks and the people farther east.

The Eastern Church, like everything else in and around Constantinople, became thoroughly Byzantine. This could be seen in the costly and colorful robes of the priests, the odor of sweet incense made from rich spices of the East used in the church, and in the architecture. The first Christian church buildings were Roman basilicas (bà·sĭl'ĩ·kă), long, low buildings with flat wooden roofs. The Byzantine builders pierced the flat roofs with high rounded domes. They decorated the inside of the church with beautiful colored marbles, flaming mosaics, polished stones, sacred pictures, and candlelight.

The Building of Santa Sophia

Many of the Christian emperors were interested in building. The first building erected by the Emperor Justinian was the church of Santa Sophia. Santa Sophia is the finest example of Byzantine architecture. It was built 1400 years ago, but it still stands today, and many travelers visit it every year.

A writer of that day says that the pillars of Santa Sophia were set in semi-circles, right and left, "like dancers in a chorus." He tells about high arches and highest windows "through which the daylight first smiles for the building overtops the whole country." The beautiful pillars, the colored stones, and the lovely mosaics of many colors make one feel that he has stepped into a "meadow of blooming flowers." Finally he says, the great dome, though it



The beautiful church of Santa Sophia.

rests on a solid base, looks as if it hung "by a golden cord from heaven to cover the place beneath."

When the traders of the East and West went to Constantinople, they marveled at the beautiful church of Santa Sophia. Many of them had their builders copy it, and these churches can still be seen in the Italian cities of Rome, Ravenna, Venice, and in other places in Europe.

The Spread of the Eastern Church

When Justinian became emperor, there were many people in the empire who were not Christians. Justinian and the emperors who followed him sent out missionaries to convert people even beyond the borders of the Empire. When nations were converted by the Eastern Church they were permitted to use their own language instead of Greek in their church services. Wherever missionaries of the Eastern Church went, they built monasteries and helped the people around them.

The work of the Eastern Church went on without interruption all during the Middle Ages. The people in and around the Balkan Peninsula became faithful Christians. They became a strong wall against the invasions of the Arabs. Though the Eastern Church lost many of her followers in Africa and Asia Minor, nevertheless, it kept the Mohammedans out of Europe until Western Europe became strong and well organized again.

THE CATHOLIC CHURCH

The Catholic Church converted most of the people of Western Europe. The Church worked among the tribes of Italy and Spain until the Arabs halted them. It converted the Franks in Gaul. To the British Isles, to the tribes beyond the Rhine, to the people around the Baltic Sea, the Catholic Church took its message. Eastward it went among the Slavs, until it met the Christians of the Eastern Church.



Rome was the church center of Western Europe. The bishops of Rome were often strong and fearless men. For example, Attila, a leader of the Huns, was about to sack Rome and the people were terrified. Leo, the Bishop of Rome, dressed in his priestly robes and riding a snow-white horse, went out unafraid to meet the enemy. Attila was so impressed by the dignity and fearlessness of this Christian leader that he spared the city. During the Dark Ages the people of the West continued to look to the bishop of Rome as their greatest leader. With its great power, the Catholic Church held Western Europe together during the Middle Ages.



MONASTERIES IN WESTERN EUROPE

As the Dark Ages spread over Western Europe, thousands of people became monks and nuns. They hoped to find peace in the quiet life of the monastery. In their quiet retreats, the monks and nuns in the West found many things to do. The monasteries became centers of industry and learning. The monks and nuns became the teachers, the writers, the scholars, the farmers, the builders, as well as the missionaries of Western Europe.

Life in a Monastery

The buildings of the monastery usually were made up of a church, a house, and barns. Because the abbot was the head of the monastery church, it was called the abbey. The house contained a dormitory of small bedrooms, where the monks slept, and some guest rooms; a refectory (rē·fēc'tō·rī), where the monks ate; an office for the abbot, and a writing room, or scriptorium. There were schoolrooms, too, and some monasteries developed very good schools. There were workshops, where the monks tanned leather, wove cloth, or made furniture, candles, and shoes. The monastery buildings were surrounded by a strong wall. Beyond the wall lay the fields and woods.



One of the most interesting rooms of the monastery was the

scriptorium, where the monks wrote and copied many books. They wrote on parchment, which is a kind of writing paper made from the skins of sheep and goats. Some monks drew interesting pictures on the pages they copied and decorated the first or initial letters. They painted the pictures with gold and beautiful colors which they made from plants and vegetables. Such pages we call illuminated. The monks bound their books in fine leather which was tanned in their own workshops.

In monasteries for women, called convents, the nuns sewed and made beautiful laces; they cooked and cared for the sick; and they wove cloth. The nuns managed farms and gardens, and wrote poetry and books. Some of them started schools.

St. Francis of Assisi

Francis of Assisi (às·sē'zē) was a monk of the Middle Ages. Although his father wanted him to become a businessman,

The monks kept busy in their monasteries. What useful activities are going on here?



Francis decided to take the vows of a monk. Instead of shutting himself up in a monastery, he decided to live in the world among the poor. He spent the rest of his life preaching, healing the sick, and comforting the needy. Francis was so gentle and kind that even birds would not fly away but sat and listened to his voice. Wherever he went, people loved him because he was so helpful. Many people followed his example and a large group, or order, of monks called the Little Brothers of the Poor started.

When Francis of Assisi died, the church put his name among the saints and called him St. Francis. Many monasteries of the Order of St. Francis were opened and many people joined the Little Brothers of the Poor.

CHURCH ARCHITECTURE

Many of the monasteries were started on the ruins of old Roman buildings. As they worked among the ancient ruins,

Describe the books that the monks wrote or copied.



the monks learned many important things about building. In the early Middle Ages the monks used the old Roman basilica as the plan for their churches, but they added some things to it. This type of architecture, which is like the Roman but has new ideas added to it, is called Romanesque (rō'măn·ěsk').

Gothic Architecture

The people in the northern cities of Europe were not satisfied with the Romanesque style of architecture for their churches. Only something expansive and high, reaching toward the heavens, could satisfy them. Many master builders in northern France began to experiment with ways of giving light and height to churches.



How would you know that this cathedral in Reims, France, is Gothic architecture?

The builders learned to make pointed arches instead of rounded ones. They learned, too, that by crossing or intersecting many-pointed arches they could raise the roofs of their churches very high. They learned that arches supported on pillars were strong enough to hold the new high roofs. They learned, too, that heavy pillars were not necessary but that clusters of slender pillars

or piers could bear the weight. The spaces between the arches and piers were used for large stained glass windows.

To keep the light walls from spreading under the weight of the high roof, extra supports or buttresses were built on the outside of the walls. Because some of these supports look like wings, they are called flying buttresses. Heavy round or square towers

did not seem to fit into the graceful new pattern the builders were developing, so slender spires took their place.

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When builders had learned to put together successfully in one building pointed arches, graceful piers, large windows, flying buttresses, and slender spires, they had developed a new idea in architecture. The people of South Europe had called every idea which was not Greek or Roman *Gothic*, from the Goths who had invaded Rome. Therefore, they called the new idea in architecture which was developed in northern France Gothic (gōth'ic), and the name still clings to it.

THE JEWS DURING THE MIDDLE AGES

In the Middle Ages there were Jews scattered in small groups all over Western Europe. Because the Christians made it hard for them to own land, they lived in the towns and cities. They were merchants, money lenders, doctors, teachers, and scholars.

A Jewish mother lights the Sabbath candles in her home and offers a prayer.





The Jews usually lived by themselves in one section of a town. They had their own ways of living and their own religion. Occasionally they made good friends among the Christians. Sometimes a Christian decided to accept the Jewish faith. Many kings and nobles treated the Jews kindly because they needed the money or the medical help which the Jews could give. The bishops and missionaries of the Catholic church and some of the Christian kings tried to get the Jews to accept Christianity. How this was done depended upon the kind of men the bishops and kings were. Some tried peacefully to persuade the Jews to become Christians. Others persecuted the Jews.

Sometimes a king would offer the Jews a chance to become Christian or leave the country. In such cases, some Jews would accept Christianity, but most of them would sorrowfully move to some other place to live. They preferred to lose their homes and their goods rather than give up their faith. Sometimes the Popes tried to protect the Jews, but they could not keep the mobs from persecuting their neighbor Jews. The Jews held staunchly to their faith.

MOHAMMEDANISM IN THE MIDDLE AGES



The Mohammedan religion, or Islam, was another powerful religion in the Middle Ages. Mohammed, its founder, was born in Mecca, which was the religious center of the Arabs. Before the time of Mohammed, most of the Arabs worshipped many gods. In the new religion, Mohammed taught that "There is no god but Allah and Mohammed is his prophet." The people who accepted this religion were called Mohammedans, or Moslems. Their religion was called Islam, which means "obedience to the will of God." Islam is also called Mohammedanism. The Mohammedans began their calendar in 622, about the year that Mohammed became their leader. Faithful Mohammedans are expected to make a pilgrimage to Mecca at least once in their lifetime.

Mohammed gave his people a sacred book or scripture called the Koran (kô·rän'). The Koran teaches the faithful to be kind and thoughtful in their daily lives; to worship the one true God, Allah; not to offer sacrifices and not to use strong drink; it teaches that all men are equal; it permits no elaborate ceremonies or priests, but gives clear directions for worshiping Allah in a simple sincere way.

When Mohammed died in 632 he was master of all Arabia. His followers continued to conquer more and more lands, both east and west. As we have seen (pages 250-251), in Persia, Asia Minor, North Africa, and Spain they conquered many Christian lands, and built up a great empire.

Like the Christians, the Mohammedans had a way of making converts. The people had the choice of paying tribute, joining Islam, or being killed. Though many became Mohammedans, groups of Christians and Jews, by paying tribute, could continue to keep their faith and live in peace.

The Mohammedan Turks Threatened Europe

Christians in the Middle Ages believed that if they visited the Holy Land or some other sacred spot, some good would come to them. Such a visit was called a *pilgrimage*, and the people who made them, pilgrims.

Pilgrims coming home from the Holy Land about the year 1000 had a sorrowful tale to tell. The Turks, fierce nomads from beyond the Caspian Sea, had conquered most of Asia Minor. The Turks had little respect for Christianity.



A Moslem boy kneels on a prayer rug, facing toward Mecca, as he prays.

When the Turks became masters of Palestine, they charged high fees for visiting the sacred places. They did not protect the pilgrims if they needed help, and they did not treat the holy places with respect. The Turks in Asia Minor became a threat to Christianity and its holy places. Then the emperor of the East asked the Pope to send help.



THE CRUSADES

What could the Pope do? The church did not have a strong army large enough to march into the East and subdue the Turks. There were plenty of feudal knights with plenty of strong armor, however, who were wasting their time and their strength fighting one another. Why not challenge them to save the Holy Land and Europe from the Moslem Turks? The nobles gladly accepted the challenge.

Every knight who promised to go to the Holy Land received a badge. The badge was a cross made of red cloth. The knight wore the red cross on his breast when he went forth to war and on his back when he returned. The cross is a Christian symbol for Jesus. Because the soldiers wore a cross, they were called Crusaders, which means warriors of the cross. The wars they fought were called the Crusades.

In the year 1096, the first Crusade was on its way. The Crusaders took the Turks by surprise and succeeded in taking Jerusalem and large parts of Asia Minor from the Turks. When the Turks became organized, however, they began to gain back the territory they had lost.

Then the need for another Crusade was preached. In fact, four times the Crusaders tried to conquer the Turks. Once they made a great mistake by fighting with the Christians of the East instead of the Turks. This weakened the Eastern Empire and made Constantinople less strong and powerful than it had been. For two hundred years the knights of Western Europe tried to win and hold Palestine. But in the end they failed.

Results of the Crusades

Although the Crusades failed to do what they were intended to do, they had some very important results. In the first place, the Crusades helped to destroy feudalism in the West. Thousands of knights went on the Crusades. With so many warriors away from home, the wars among the nobles died down. This helped the king grow more powerful than the nobles.

There were other results of the Crusades. They helped to increase trading, they made towns and cities grow, they gave the crafts much more work, and they brought many new ideas into Europe from the lands through which the Crusaders had passed.



THINGS TO DO

I. QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS.

1. What two large branches of the Christian church started in the Middle Ages? What does *catholic* mean?
2. What titles do the clergy have and what are their special tasks?
3. Can you tell the difference between a basilical and a Byzantine church? Between a Romanesque and a Gothic? By whom was Santa Sophia built?
4. How far did the Christian church spread in the Middle Ages?
5. Why were the monasteries of Western Europe important? What kinds of work did the monks and nuns do?
6. What is the name of the sacred scriptures of Islam? What are some of its teachings?
7. What tale did the pilgrims returning from the Holy Land about the year 1000 tell?
8. What was the purpose of the Crusades? Were the Crusades successful?

II. HISTORY DEFINITIONS AND NEW WORDS.

<i>Catholic</i>	<i>cathedral</i>	<i>Romanesque</i>	<i>pilgrimage</i>
<i>Archbishop</i>	<i>monastery</i>	<i>flying buttress</i>	<i>crusade</i>
<i>doctrines</i>	<i>scriptorium</i>	<i>Gothic architecture</i>	<i>Koran</i>
<i>convert</i>	<i>parchment</i>	<i>persecute</i>	<i>Islam</i>

III. TWO RELIGIONS. Write two paragraphs for your notebook record. In one paragraph tell the important ideas about the Christian Church in the Middle Ages. In the other give ideas about Mohammedanism.

IV. MORE INFORMATION. You will want to find out more about some of the happenings mentioned in this chapter. The encyclopedia will help you get more information about religion in the Middle Ages. Here are suggestions for topics to study.

Crusades	Gothic buildings
Monasteries	The Koran

V. A LIST OF BORROWED IDEAS. Look at the churches in your community. Make a list of the ideas that American builders have borrowed from the Gothic architects. Post a list on your bulletin board.

VI. YOUR COSTUME BOOK AND BOOK OF HOMES. In the Costume Book draw or paste pictures of the kind of clothes worn by a monk, a nun, and a crusader. In the Book of Homes put pictures of a monastery and a convent.

VII. A CRUSADER. Pretend that you are a crusader who has returned to England after years in the Holy Land. Tell your adventures to the class.



Chapter 18

Trade, Towns, and Guilds

One of the most important results of the Crusades was the growth of trade in Europe. All during the Dark Ages and the beginning of feudal times, few people traveled in Western Europe. The roads were so bad and dangerous that people stayed at home. They felt safer behind strong castle walls or with their friends in the village. But when the Crusades started, people began to move about again.

The traveling knights made friends with the well-to-do people living in Constantinople, Damascus, Alexandria, Jerusalem, and other Eastern cities. They found their homes comfortably and beautifully furnished. There were couches and divans covered with soft leather. Beautiful rugs were scattered on the floor and draped across the couches. There were delightful gardens, made cool with splashing fountains.

The wealthy people wore clothes made of silk and fine linen, often stitched with pure gold. They wore rings and necklaces and tiaras (tī·âr'âs) set with precious stones. The soldiers could boast of strong swords made of the finest steel. These travelers from Western Europe tasted many new kinds of food, too.



They ate fruits and vegetables which they had never seen before, such as oranges, peaches, and spinach. The meats and puddings were seasoned with savory spices, which were rare in Western Europe.

Every Crusader wanted his family to enjoy the same good things that he had seen and used and tasted. Therefore, the boats that brought the Crusaders to the East went back filled with things to brighten and make comfortable many a dark stone castle.

It was not only *things* which the Crusaders brought back into Western Europe from the East. They brought new ideas also. In the orchards and the gardens of the East they learned new ways of farming. Some of them enrolled in the universities of the East and studied astronomy or medicine or mathematics. Many Crusaders purchased books from the shops of the Arabs. All of them enjoyed the Byzantine architecture. Many a town and castle of Western Europe changed its ways of living because some knight had been in the East.



THE GROWTH OF CITIES IN EUROPE

During the time of the Roman Empire there had been many fine cities in Western Europe. The invading Teutons did not destroy all of these cities. Some of them stood all through the Dark Ages. There were London and York; Florence and Milan (mĩ·lăn'); Cologne (kõ·lõn'), Paris, Marseilles (mār'sě y), and Lyon (lē·ôn'). Many of the buildings of these cities were ruined and others crumbled from lack of repairs. But the cities still kept their Roman names, their streets, their aqueducts, their churches, and some other ways of living from Ancient Times.

Venice

Cities on the Mediterranean Sea, because they were close to the busy East, kept up a certain amount of trade all during the Dark Ages. Venice was one of these cities. In fact, Venice, a

city of islands, was started during the invasions of the Teutons. In order to protect themselves from the barbarians, a number of families sought refuge on a group of little islands and marshy land at a place near the head of the Adriatic Sea. Slowly they built a strong city on the islands. They sank tree trunks, or piles, to bolster up the land and make foundations. They made row boats to use on their streets of water, or canals. By the end of the Dark Ages, Venice was a flourishing trading city. It was ready to handle all the new trade that the Crusades brought.

Growth of New Cities

Gradually other cities grew up in Europe. Where two roads crossed and traders could stop and exchange their wares; where a river could be forded easily; or where there was an exceptionally good harbor, towns often started. A village on a manor

How did the people of Venice get about in their streets of water? Notice the fine buildings and the clothes that the people wore.



sometimes grew into a city. Cities grew up, too, near monasteries, where serfs could be sure to find protection and a chance to work. Often cities grew up behind the walls of a fortress which serfs built for protection.

From a distance a city of the Middle Ages looked like a strong fortress with its walls, its towers, its drawbridges, and a moat. Above the walls, one could see the roofs of the tallest houses, the spires of churches, and if it was a large city, perhaps a castle and a cathedral.



Most of the cities of the Middle Ages were small. Everything was crowded within the city wall. The houses were usually made of wood and were built very close together. The streets were narrow and at night were very dark. There were no public parks or open spaces except for the market place and perhaps a little space around a church. The bakers, the weavers, the candle makers, and all of the other workmen not only lived in the city but had their workshops there, too.

The city of the Middle Ages was neither clean nor healthful. People threw their refuse in their little backyards or out on the street for the dogs and pigs to eat. Water came from unsanitary streams or wells. Fountains were built in the towns. In most cases a whole neighborhood used the same fountain. In wet weather the narrow streets and lanes were muddy and filled with dangerous holes of filth and water.



How Cities Became Free

At first the cities of the Middle Ages were not free. They were a part of feudalism. Since the land was divided into fiefs, every city was on the land belonging to a noble. Therefore, the people living in the cities had to obey the laws made by the noble, they had to pay taxes to him, and could not choose their own officers.

Gradually, however, many cities freed themselves from their overlords. Sometimes the people of the city simply refused to

obey their overlords and fought for their freedom. Others asked their king to free them. Some cities bought their freedom when their overlords needed money to wage war or go on a Crusade.

When a city became free or even partly free, the citizens signed a contract which they called a charter. The old duties that the people owed to their overlords as serfs were forgotten entirely or changed into the payment of taxes. The citizens usually were permitted to elect their own officers, to hold public meetings to discuss their needs, and to raise an army to protect themselves. As a sign of their freedom many cities built a bell tower. There a watchman was on duty night and day to ring the bell in time of danger.

Some very rich and powerful cities became absolutely independent of any lord or king. These cities became republics, like the ancient Greek city-states. There were a number of free cities in Italy, such as Venice, Genoa, and Milan. Along the northern coast of Europe there were the great trading cities of Danzig (dän'tsik), Hamburg, Lûbeck (lû·bĕk'), and Bremen (brā'-mĕn).



How Cities Were Governed

The inhabitants of a city were free. No one within the city could be held as a slave or a serf. If a serf lived in a city for a year and a day, he could not be claimed by his lord again as a serf. Because of that law, many serfs ran away from the manors to find freedom in the cities.

The city was governed by a council. The leading merchants of the town were usually chosen as the members of the council, and the council had one man who was its head. While the city and its people were free, the council often governed the private lives of the people in many ways. They might decide such things as how many clothes a man could own and wear, how many trees he could plant, and how many guests he could invite to a wedding.

Every man had to take his turn as night watchman on the walls or in the streets. In these small crowded cities, the danger of fire was very great. Therefore, about eight or nine o'clock every night the city bell was sounded. Then every family was supposed to blow out their lamps and candles and cover their fires carefully so no fire could start during the night. This bell became known as the curfew. Curfew comes from the two French words *couvre feu*, which means "cover fire." As the watchman walked up and down the dark streets, he had to watch to see that the people obeyed the curfew.

GUILDS IN THE MIDDLE AGES

A guild is a club or association of people whose members are pledged to help each other. There were guilds in ancient Rome, and in China and India before the time of Christ. There were guilds in Europe when Charlemagne ruled the kingdom of the Franks. Guilds did not become important in Europe, however, until after the Crusades. Then, workingmen's guilds became very important in cities. They were so powerful that they often chose the town council and its head.

Becoming a Member of a Guild

No one who did not belong to a guild could carry on a trade. A simple trade might be learned in three years, but it took ten years to become a goldsmith. While a young man was learning a trade, he was called an apprentice, or learner. To become an apprentice a person had to sign a contract. The contract told what the apprentice had to do for his master in exchange for learning his trade. Usually, he had to pay a sum of money to his master and to live in the master's home. He received no salary while he was an apprentice. Often the masters were cruel to their apprentices, but there were kind masters, too, who treated their apprentices like members of their own family.

After working the length of time which his contract called

for, and if he could pass a test, the apprentice became a journeyman. Then he was paid wages for his work. Often the journeyman had to continue to work three years for the master who taught him his trade. When a journeyman had saved enough money, he could set himself up as a master workman in his own shop.

Activities of Guilds

Each guild had rules which the members had to obey. The rules stated how much masters could charge for their wares; the amount of wages which the journeymen could be paid and how long they could work every day; how many apprentices a master could have; and how many masters could belong to the guild. Supervisors, appointed by the guild, inspected the work done in the masters' shops to see that the best materials were used and that the products were well made.

Here is a guild procession on market day. Can you tell which guild it is?



Often all the people who followed one kind of work lived in the same street or block. They worshipped in the same church and kept up a special altar for their guild. They raised large sums of money to take care of themselves and their families when they were in need. If a member of a guild was sick, the guild paid the doctor's bills; if a guild member died, the funeral expenses were paid out of the treasury of the guild. The guild often built a big hall where its members could carry on business and have good times. Guild dances and banquets were always held in the guild hall.



GROWTH OF TRADE IN EUROPE

With people eager for new and exciting things from the East, merchants encouraged the craftsmen to make more goods than could be sold at home. The merchants filled their ships with the extra products of their craftsmen and carried them to some distant port to trade. Thus trade and commerce increased in Europe. Old trade routes were busier than ever and new trade routes were started. Before the end of the Middle Ages all the cities of Europe were busy making and exchanging goods.

Trade Routes in the Later Middle Ages

There were three main routes of trade with the East. One was the long, overland route from China and other lands of Eastern Asia. Caravans wove their way through high mountain passes and over hot desert sands to ports on the Black Sea. There the products were loaded on boats, which carried them to Constantinople. Another route led through the Red Sea and the Nile River to the cities of Cairo and Alexandria. The third and most important route led up the Persian Gulf and Tigris River to Bagdad. From there the products were carried by caravan to Damascus and Antioch.

The products of the East were carried by boat and overland to the great trading centers of Europe. Merchant ships from

Spain, southern France, and Italy carried goods back and forth across the Mediterranean Sea. Once a year a great fleet of ships from Venice plied its way around Spain, up the coast of France, and anchored at Bruges (brōō'jīz), a flourishing port in Flanders. Overland routes from Genoa, Venice, and Marseilles led through the great mountain passes of the Alps into the trading cities of Central Europe and the North.

Plying the Atlantic Ocean, the North Sea, and the Baltic was another fleet of ships. These were the ships belonging to the merchants of the Hanseatic League. The Hanseatic League started in the Later Middle Ages. It began when a small group of North German towns banded themselves together to help one another when any of them needed money, ships, or protection against pirates. As time went on, other towns joined the League, until there were eighty Hanse cities. Hanse means association. The Hanseatic League became very strong. It finally controlled all the trade in the Baltic Sea.



Most towns and all cities had a market day every week or two. A section of the city was set aside for the market place. To the market the farmers brought their cattle to sell, their chickens and ducks, their vegetables and eggs. The craftsmen of the town displayed their wares. The bakers and the fish mongers tempted their neighbors to buy from them. In some of the stalls in the market place there were sure to be found some of the precious things from the East.

There were laws that governed buying. People were not allowed to do business anywhere but at the market stalls. They were expected also to buy only what they needed and no more. The prices were fixed. The price of an article depended upon the quality and quantity of the materials that were used in making it and how well it was made. This was called the "just price."

There was great fun and excitement on market day. Talk over in class the interesting



There was not much money in the Middle Ages and bartering was common.

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Once or twice a year all the great trading cities had a fair. The fairs held in the city of Bruges were especially important. To these fairs the Hanse Merchants brought their boats, laden with goods to trade with the merchants of Venice and Flanders. You can imagine what the harbor looked like during a fair. There were boats with English banners flying. There were the boats of the Hanse Merchants, which looked much like the ships of their ancestors, the Vikings. Then there were the Venetian ships, called galleys.

The booths of the traders were filled with the products which boats brought to the port of Bruges. There were furs and salted fish, beeswax, lumber, honey, and precious amber brought by the Hanse Merchants. Products made of iron and steel were displayed by the Arab traders, as well as leather goods and

things you see in the picture. What is being sold?



books and paper. Fine woolen and linen cloth woven by the expert weavers of Flanders could be purchased. Then there were the silks, tapestries, rugs, drugs and perfumes, the beautiful vases and dishes and jewels from India, China, and the East Indies. Buying and selling went on for days.

There was much gaiety during the fairs. The guilds had processions. The church actors gave plays. The mayor entertained visiting merchants. Parties were given for cousins and uncles and friends who were welcomed heartily in the homes of the people of Bruges.



New Ways of Living in Western Europe

As trade increased in Western Europe, merchants became very wealthy; cities became prosperous; craftsmen became industrious citizens. The merchants and craftsmen became even more wealthy and had better armies than the feudal nobles. Kings were very anxious to destroy the power of the nobles and unite their fiefs into strong countries. So wealthy merchants and thrifty townsmen became more important to kings than nobles.

As cities grew prosperous, they not only destroyed old ways of living but they brought many new ways of living to Western Europe. The cities became great centers of learning and beauty. Schools and universities were started. Old buildings were torn down and new and more beautiful ones erected.

Life among the people became more interesting. They learned new ways to dress and had more beautiful materials for their clothing. They furnished their homes more comfortably. They learned better ways to prepare their food. With so much moving about, people had many more interesting things to talk and think about. During the Later Middle Ages life was much more interesting and comfortable than it had been during the Dark Ages or when feudalism was strong. Getting acquainted with the East increased commerce, developed cities and trade, and brought better ways of living to much of Europe.

THINGS TO DO

I. QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS.

1. What group of people was most responsible for exchanging ideas in the Middle Ages?
2. Can you name some of the cities which have existed in Europe from before the Middle Ages until now?
3. How did cities grow up in the Middle Ages? Where did city people get their water? Were the streets paved? Why was the curfew sounded?
4. What is a guild? How did one become a member of a guild? How did the guild protect its members?
5. How did people in the Middle Ages exchange their products with those from another country?
6. Can you describe a market in a town of the Middle Ages? What were some of the laws which governed trading in markets?
7. Who came to the fairs held in large trading cities? What were some of the products traders exchanged at fairs?
8. What were some of the results of the development of trade in Western Europe? How did the growth of trade in Europe break down feudalism?

II. HISTORY DEFINITIONS AND NEW WORDS.

charter, guild, journeyman, apprentice, Hanseatic League

- III. ACT IT OUT. You will enjoy acting out some of the following scenes. Perhaps you will write simple scripts that will help you to make your plays more interesting.
- | | |
|---------------------------|------------------------|
| Trading at the Crossroads | A Meeting of the Guild |
| A City Wins its Freedom | A Day at the Fair |
| Market Day | |

IV. PICTURES AND WALL HANGINGS. Some of you will want to draw pictures or make wall hangings of these: A city in the Middle Ages; a Venetian galley; a fair.

V. ADVENTURES ON THE WAY. Pretend you are a silk scarf, a gold bracelet, or some other lovely article that the traders carried to Europe from the East. Write a story of your travels and adventures on your journey.

LET'S REVIEW

I. COMPLETE YOUR RECORD. Finish your notebook record about life in the Middle Ages.

II. A MATCHING TEST. On a sheet of paper copy the list of words in Column I. Find the words in Column II that match the words in Column I and put its letter beside the right word in Column I.

Column I	Column II
1. Arabians	<i>a.</i> tribes of European barbarians
2. Charles Martel	<i>b.</i> king of the Franks
3. Alaric	<i>c.</i> workingmen's associations
4. feudalism	<i>d.</i> Mohammedans
5. Crusades	<i>e.</i> the first part of the Middle Ages
6. Teutons	<i>f.</i> king of the West Goths
7. Mohammed	<i>g.</i> the founder of Islam
8. guild	<i>h.</i> an apprentice
9. Dark Ages	<i>i.</i> holy wars
10. Charlemagne	<i>j.</i> flying buttresses
	<i>k.</i> a system of government
	<i>l.</i> defeated the Arabs near Tours

III. A RADIO BROADCAST. Divide your class into groups to plan a radio broadcast of events in Medieval Times.

Reread the unit to decide what you want to include in your script. Appoint a master of ceremonies to introduce each group and tie the whole story together.

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IV. NEWS OF THE MIDDLE AGES. Pretend that you are newspaper reporters who were present at some of the important events in the Middle Ages. Write a series of headlines to tell the news. Keep your news flashes in historical order.

V. A HALL OF FAME OF THE MIDDLE AGES. Prepare a program in which famous men of the Middle Ages come to life and tell about themselves. Perhaps you will print the names of these people on a scroll to post on your bulletin board. Put the list in your notebook.

VI. WHO AM I? It will be fun to play the *Who Am I* game with names, places, and events that you learned about in this unit.

VII. LET'S READ. You will find these stories exciting and interesting.

A Boy of the Last Crusade by Agnes D. Hewes, Houghton Mifflin Company

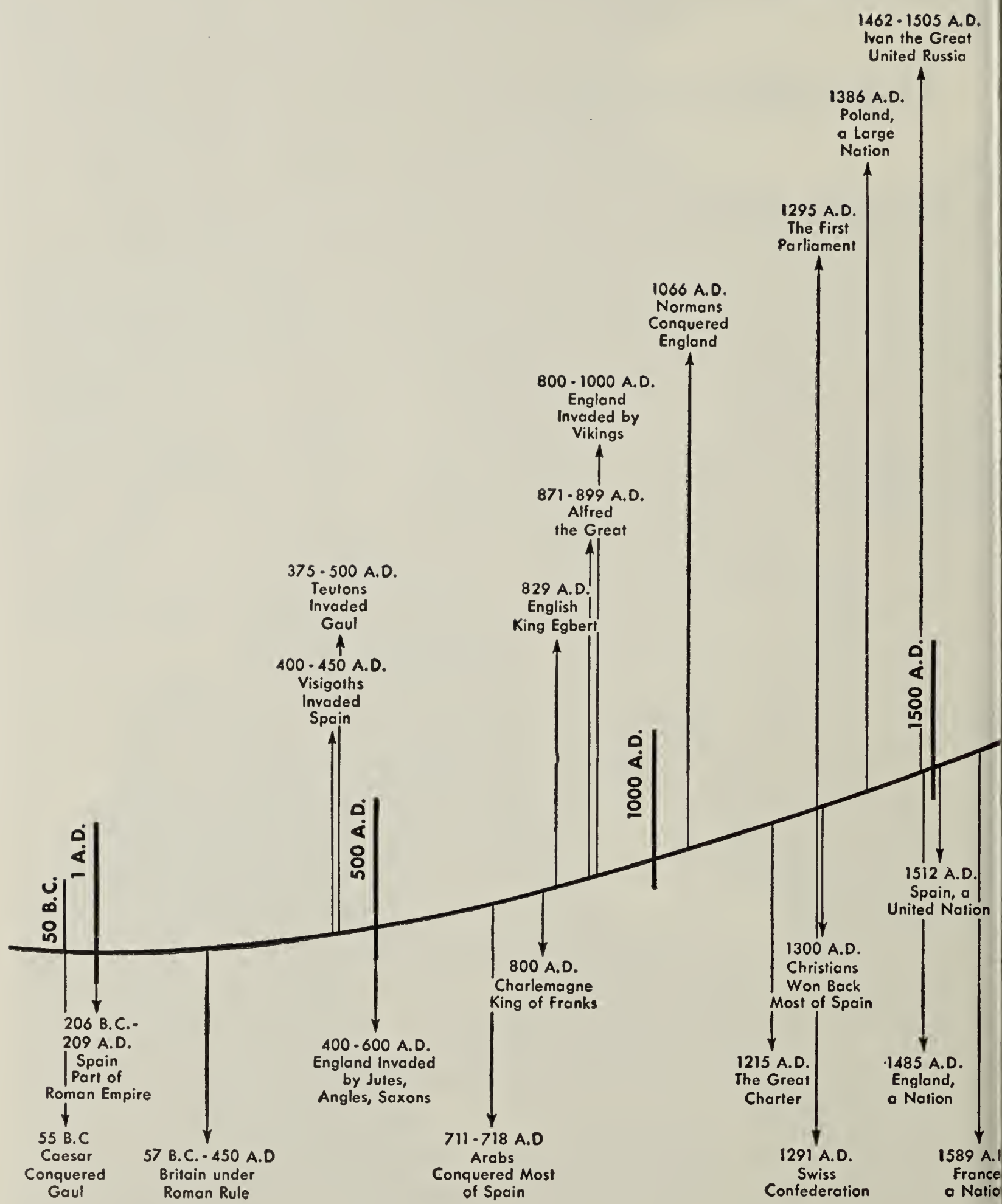
The Story of Roland by James Baldwin, Charles Scribner's Sons

When Knights Were Bold by Eva March Tappan, Houghton Mifflin Company

Unit 6



How Nations Began in Europe





Chapter 19

How France Became a Nation

For more than four hundred years much of the civilized world was united under the Roman Empire. Unit V told the story of the breakup of the Roman Empire and of the coming of feudalism in Western Europe. Under feudalism the nobles really had more power than the kings. During the latter part of the Middle Ages, however, the kings of several of the countries of Europe began to strengthen their power.

In different parts of Europe, these strong kings created one government which all of their subjects obeyed. All the people who were under the control of one strong government were called a *nation*. In each nation, nobles, clergy, townsmen, and peasants began to feel that they belonged together, under one ruler. They began to be loyal to their king and nation.

This unit tells how nations started in Europe.

THE BEGINNINGS OF FRANCE

In prehistoric times, France, like the rest of Europe, was the home of many groups of Stone Age people. Later, tribes of Celts (*sēlts*), whose ancestors were Indo-Europeans from around the Caspian Sea, pushed into France and mingled with the people there. When the Phoenicians made settlements in

France, they called the country Gaul and the people living there, Gauls. Greek traders followed the Phoenicians to Gaul. In the first century B.C. Julius Caesar conquered Gaul and it soon became one of the fairest provinces of the Roman Empire, with Roman roads, aqueducts, bridges, homes, and schools.

When the Teutons invaded the Roman Empire, many tribes overran Gaul and found homes there. Among these tribes were the Franks. Gradually the king of the Franks ruled more and more of the land of Gaul. The name Gaul disappeared and the Land of the Franks, or Frankland, took its place. Later the name was shortened to France.



Charlemagne, King of the Franks

Charlemagne was the greatest king of the Franks. He tried to make his land orderly, to make better laws, and to teach his people to do many things well. Under him the kingdom grew very large. By the year 800 A.D. Charlemagne's empire took in the kingdom of the Franks, the land of the German tribes up to the Elbe River, three fourths of Italy, and a part of Spain. In that year, while Charlemagne was visiting in Rome, the Pope crowned him emperor, as we have seen.

By this time the language Charlemagne's people spoke was a mixture of old Celtic, German, and Latin. Today we call this language French.



FEUDAL TIMES IN FRANCE

The first kings who followed Charlemagne were not strong enough to hold the nation together. One tribe after another pushed into France and tried to settle there. The Arabs invaded France from the south. Swarms of fierce Huns swept in from the east. These invasions caused disorder throughout the nation, and the weak kings could not keep order in the country. Therefore, people sought protection from strong warriors, and feudalism became the way of life in France.

The Norsemen Invaded France

Before Charlemagne died, the boats of the Norsemen, bold and adventurous pirates from Scandinavia, came to the northern shores of the kingdom of the West Franks. Charlemagne used to shake his head wisely and say, "Now these men are bringing produce to trade with our people, but some day they will settle down among us and take our land away."

Charlemagne was right. The Norsemen did come again and again, and each time they grew stronger and bolder. When he could hold them back no longer, the king of France gave Rollo, the chief of the Norsemen, a large section of the north country around the River Seine (sān). Since then, this part of France has been called Normandy.



The Norsemen coming to France.

Rollo, now Duke of Normandy, proved to be a good ruler. He and his followers became Christians and restored peace and order in Normandy. They mingled with the people there, gave up their own language, and took on many of the ways of living of their French neighbors. Nowhere were there braver or more colorful knights, better food and clothing, nor finer manners than in Normandy.

Feudal Lords Grew More Powerful than the Kings of France

The kings of France were so weak that for many years strong feudal lords paid no attention to them. The lords of great fiefs like Normandy, Flanders, Brittany, and Burgundy refused to pay taxes to the king, to supply him with soldiers, or to answer

his calls for help. Thus, instead of being one strong government, France was divided into many small governments. The land that the king of France ruled was only about the size of a county or two in one of our states.

The very strongest of the feudal lords was the Duke of Normandy. Although the Normans had changed many of their ways of living, they had not lost their spirit of adventure and the desire to gain new lands. Therefore, in 1066, led by William, Duke of Normandy, they crossed the channel and conquered England. So the Duke of Normandy became the King of England. He ruled also over a large section of France.

The Kings of France Broke the Power of the Feudal Lords

Finally, strong kings came to the throne of France. They found ways to break the power of the nobles. Slowly but surely, many of the strong feudal lords of France began to see their power crumble and the power of the kings of France grow strong. The Duke of Normandy remained as strong as before, however. He no longer lived in France, but governed Normandy from his throne in England. The people of France were very anxious to throw off the power of the English king.

HOW PHILIP AUGUSTUS UNITED FRANCE

Philip Augustus was only fifteen years old when he came to the throne of France in 1180. The young king surprised everybody by his strength and determination. He did much to reduce the power of the nobles and brought many of their lands under the direct rule of the king. He still had to reckon with the Duke of Normandy, who at that time was John, a cowardly man.

The Defeat of the English

John had no army in Normandy, so Philip Augustus marched into Normandy with a big army and took possession of the en-

tire province. This was the greatest conquest that any king of France had ever made. But John, as cowardly as he was, would not permit himself to be so easily defeated.

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One day messengers brought word to Philip Augustus that John, King of England and Duke of Normandy, was on his way with a huge army to do battle with him. Quickly Philip Augustus gathered together an army of 100,000 warriors and rode out to meet the enemy. The armies met at Bouvines (bōō'vën') in the year 1214. Never before was such an important battle fought on French soil. When night came, Philip Augustus was the victor. After this victory there could be no doubt that the King of France was the real ruler of France.

Before he died, Philip Augustus had doubled the territory ruled over by the kings of France. Some strong fiefs still remained in the hands of feudal lords. The king's court, however, was the strongest in the land, and his laws were obeyed every-

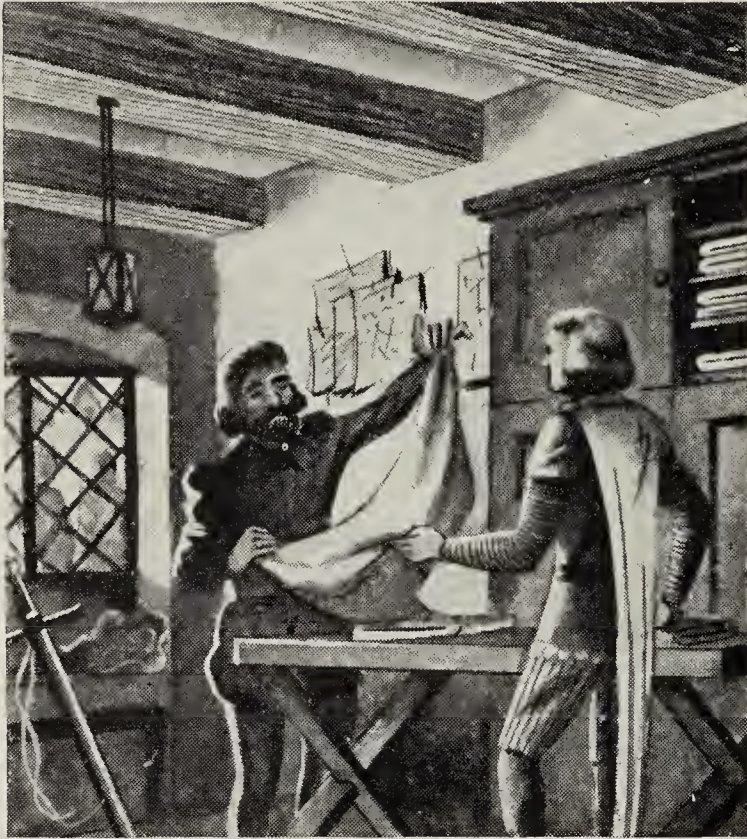
Here you see the Cathedral of Notre Dame being built in Paris many years ago.



310 where in the nation. Philip gave the kings of France greater power than they had ever had before.

Paris—the Capital of France

When Philip Augustus became king he made Paris, his capital, orderly and beautiful. He built fine market places. He ordered all of the streets to be paved. He built beautiful fountains and gardens in many parts of the city. Philip encouraged craftsmen, guilds, and traders. During his reign the right bank of the river became a flourishing center for industry and commerce.



A French tailor's shop.

Philip helped to build many churches, monasteries, and castles in Paris. He helped to erect the famous cathedral of Notre Dame. He built the Louvre (lōō'vr) as his royal castle. From the Louvre he sent out his orders which helped France to grow into a

united nation. Philip encouraged learning. About 1200 A.D. he started the University of Paris on the left bank of the river. Thousands of students from all over Europe met there to study and exchange ideas. Many rulers of France followed Philip's example. Most of them learned to love Paris and help to make it beautiful.

Improved Ways of Living

During Philip's reign and for a hundred years after, the ways of living in France improved very much. So many people wanted to go to school that the monasteries could not take care

of them all. Teachers and pupils banded together and started universities in many cities.

During these years the French language improved. It was so pleasing to listen to and expressed ideas so well that it was used by more people in Europe than any other language. Literature and art flourished in France. Many great poets, storywriters, and historians wrote great works that are still read and remembered today. Architects in northern France developed Gothic architecture. Many beautiful Gothic churches and cathedrals were built. Just as the language of France became popular in other countries, all her arts were imitated, too.

The people in the cities and towns were given freedom to travel about, to own property, to carry on industry and trade. The peasants, too, were given more freedom. As the common people were freed, they took a greater interest in their government. The king could depend on them to improve their nation and to fight for it when necessary.

A great improvement came about in government. For many years only two classes, or *estates*, of people were considered important enough to help the king make laws and raise money. These two classes, or estates, were the nobles and the clergy. The common men were never permitted to help. Kings began, however, to ask the common men to sit with the clergy and nobles to make the laws of the land. The common men, therefore, became the *third estate*. When the king called representatives from all the provinces together, this large governing body was called the Estates-General.



French cooks made delicious things to eat for the tables of the wealthy.

THE UNITY OF FRANCE THREATENED

When Philip Augustus died, it looked for a while as if the feudal lords would again have more power than the king. There were many rivals for the French throne. Seeing the weakness of the French at this time, England began to trouble them again. For a hundred years France and England fought.

The longer they fought the weaker the French side became. Finally, it looked as if France might have to surrender to England. The English held Paris, while Charles VII, the French king, lived in a little town in central France and dared not go to Paris. The French people were beginning to be as fearful and timid as their king, when a strange thing happened.

A Maiden Brought Back Unity to France

In the year 1429 the English besieged the city of Orleans.

What did Jeanne d'Arc do for France? Why was she called the Maid of Orleans?



Suddenly to the court of Charles VII help came in a very unexpected way. A young French peasant girl named Jeanne d'Arc offered to lead the French armies to victory. Jeanne told the king she had a vision. In the vision a voice said, "Jeanne, go and help the king of France and restore to him his throne."

Who had ever heard of a girl going into battle? The spirit of Jeanne d'Arc, however, moved the king and gave him hope. The king listened to her pleadings and consented to let her ride forth with the armies of France. Under Jeanne's leadership, the French won a great victory at Orleans. After that Jeanne was known as the Maid of Orleans.

When they saw Jeanne d'Arc dressed in armor and riding her spirited horse, strength and hope came back to the people of France. The king became less fearful. Some of the dukes who had been against him began to help the king.

Jeanne d'Arc gave the French courage, but the English feared her. To the French, Jeanne was a saint, but the English thought that she was a witch. In one battle, when things seemed to be going badly for the French, Jeanne threw herself into the midst of the fight. The Duke of Burgundy became very jealous of Jeanne's power. He arranged for her capture by the English. After a trial she was sentenced to be burned at the stake.

Thousands of people came to watch the burning of Jeanne d'Arc. Through her suffering, she still defended her king and still claimed that the voice that bade her help her king came from God. Many of the watchers tried to laugh as they saw the



Louis XI did many fine things for France. Why was he called "The Spider"?

fire rise closer and closer to the stake where the young girl was tied. Jeanne showed so much courage, however, that again the Englishmen grew afraid. Could it be that this girl who they thought was a witch was, after all, a saint? It was too late now to save her. When she had died, a secretary of the king of England said as he walked away from the scaffold, "We are lost. We have burned a saint!"

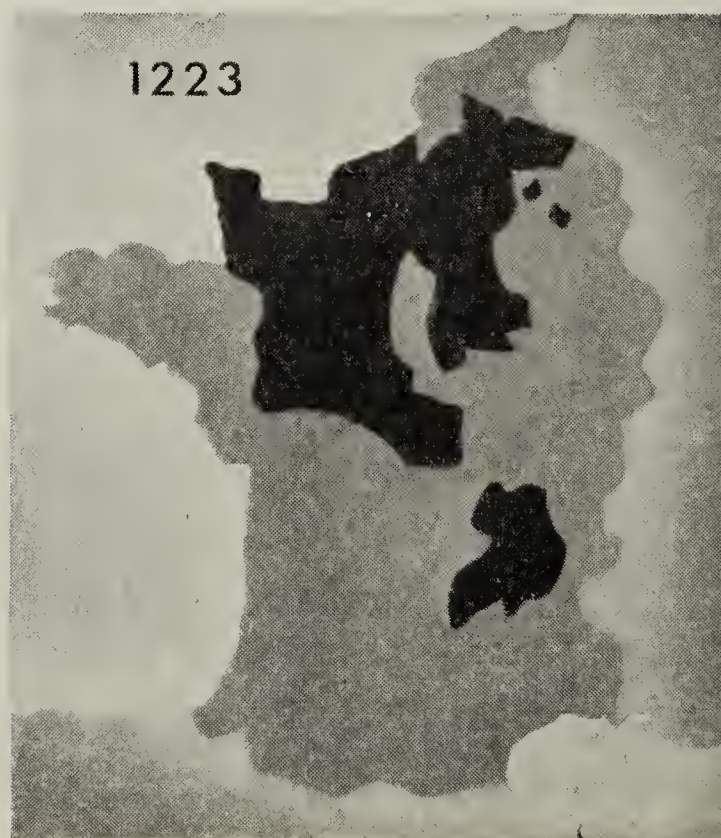
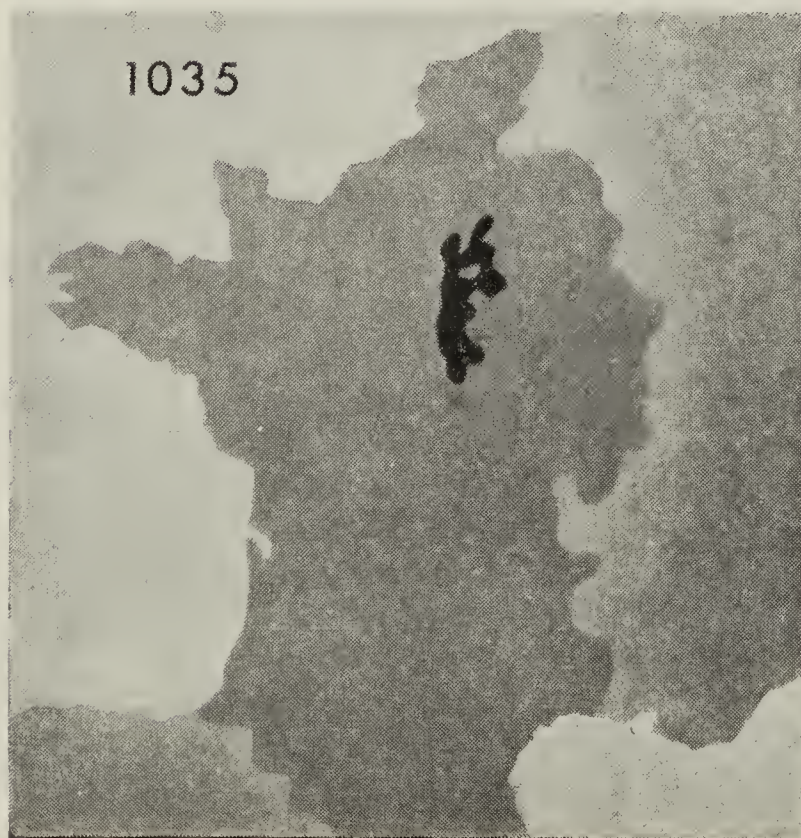
Though she was burned at the stake, the courage that the Maid of Orleans had given the king and his people lasted. Finally, France was victorious over England.

The Spider King

France was still far from being entirely united, however. There were still many provinces that did not belong to the king. Many nobles had greater power over their vassals than the king of France had. Furthermore, the Duke of Burgundy wanted to be crowned King of France. In order to get the crown, he secretly urged the English to make war upon France. While the king was busy fighting, the duke would carry out his plans to take the throne.

Louis XI was the king of France at this time (1461–1483). Like the kings before him, he realized that in a strong nation the

The black places on these maps are the small provinces of early France.



king must have power over all of the feudal lords. Therefore, everything he did was planned to make his kingdom very strong. He spoiled the secret plans of the Duke of Burgundy. One by one the fiefs came into his possession, until he had added eleven more provinces to the nation of France. One by one the great lords had to give up their power to him.

While destroying feudalism, Louis XI also encouraged trade and industries, schools and art and literature, and improved the laws of France. The people of France owe much to Louis XI, for it was he who dealt the final blow to feudalism. As he made the nation strong and united, his methods were not always noble. Sometimes he was so dishonest that the people felt sorry for the nobles whom he conquered. They said that the king was like a spider who spread his web to catch weak flies. They called him the Spider King.

France Is a Nation

By the end of the Middle Ages France was a united nation. No longer were lords like the Duke of Normandy or the Duke of Burgundy to be feared by French kings. Normandy and Burgundy and many other provinces were now all a part of France. No longer were feudal lords the rulers of France. In-

Finally, all the provinces were united into one nation, as France is today.



stead, nobles, townsmen, and peasants all looked to the king as their ruler and protector. No longer was France divided into small states ruled over by feudal lords, but it was a united nation with a king at its head. In fact, by the seventeenth century, the king of France was so powerful that he boasted, "I am the state!"

THINGS TO DO

I. QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS.

1. What is a nation?
2. Who were the earliest people that lived in France? Who were the Celts? What was France called when the Phoenicians lived there?
3. How did the Norsemen come to rule part of France? Who was their chief? What kind of ruler was he? When did the Normans conquer England?
4. Can you describe the rule of Philip Augustus?
5. What improvements did France achieve in the Middle Ages? What was the Estates-General?
6. What did Joan of Arc do for France?
7. How did the Spider King help to unite France?

II. HISTORY DEFINITIONS AND NEW WORDS.

nation Norsemen Estates-General patriotic Normans

- III. MANY GROUPS. Make a chart to show the many groups that invaded France. Have a class discussion to decide what effect these groups had on the nation.

- IV. STUDY THE MAP OF FRANCE. There are many places mentioned in this chapter. Make a list of all the places. Be sure you know how to spell them correctly and where to locate them on the map.

- V. AN EXHIBIT OF PICTURES. Collect pictures of famous buildings in Paris. Arrange an exhibit of the pictures.



Chapter 20

England's Story

For hundreds of years England has been an important nation. There was a time, however, when there was no England. The British Isles, of which England is a part, were there, of course, but England did not become a nation until the Middle Ages.

EARLY HISTORY

Because they found so much tin there, the ancient traders called the British Isles the “Tin Islands.” At that time, tribes of Celts, called Scots and Picts and Britons, lived in the “Tin Islands.” The Scots lived on what is Eire (â’rě) today, and the others lived on the large island of Great Britain. Other men had lived in the British Isles before the Celts. Remains of Lake Dwellers in Scotland and Wales prove that New Stone Age people lived there. Even farther back in time than that, people of the Old Stone Age lived in Britain, for Piltdown Man was found in Sussex, England.

Julius Caesar and his Roman armies conquered almost all the Britons. They drove the Picts into the mountains of the north country. The Romans developed farms and mines and carried on trade. Roman schools and theaters and baths and roads be-

came a part of the life of the people of Britain. For four hundred years, Britain was ruled by the Roman Empire.

Teutonic Tribes Conquered Britain

When the Roman soldiers went home to defend Rome, the Britons soon became masters of their own land again. They immediately began to fight among themselves. When things grew very serious for the Britons, they invited the Jutes (jōots) to help them. The Jutes were a powerful Teutonic tribe, who lived across the English Channel in Jutland. They found Britain a good place in which to live, so they decided to take the land away from the Britons.



The powerful Jutes conquered Britain.

The Britons fought bravely to hold their land. The stories of King Arthur and his knights of the Round Table were written later to describe the courage of

their brave leaders. In the end, the Jutes defeated the Britons and drove most of them into the western part of the island. It is these people whose lands later became Wales.

Other tribes of Teutons, called Angles (ǣng'glz) and Saxons, followed the Jutes. There were many more Angles and Saxons than Jutes. It is from them that part of the island of Britain was called Angle-land, or England, and the early language of the English people was called Anglo-Saxon.

A Saxon chief by the name of Egbert became ruler of all the tribes living in the western part of Britain, called Wessex. Egbert conquered one tribe after another. By 829 A.D. he was ruler of most of what is now England, and he took the title of

“King of the English.” Egbert was able to maintain peace for a long time, and he made the people begin to feel that they were all Englishmen.

Christianity Came to England

When the Romans left the British Isles, the Christian Church almost disappeared there. Not many years after the Teutons had taken over Britain, Christian missionaries brought the Christian religion back to Ireland and Scotland and Wales, and to the English, also. Christianity became the religion of all England, and monasteries were founded which became great centers of learning.

Masons and glassmakers came to England, too. They built stone churches like those of the Romans to take the place of the wooden churches. Copies of the great books written by the ancient Greeks and Romans were brought also. They were recopied by the English monks in the monasteries. The young men trained to be priests were taught the Greek and Latin languages.

IN THE DAYS OF ALFRED THE GREAT

After Egbert's death, tribes of Norsemen, called Danes, raided the shores of England. They ransacked farms, homes, churches, and monasteries and carried away rich booty. The Danes were so feared in those days that many a priest added to his prayers, “From the fury of the Norsemen, good Lord, deliver us.” Finally, the Danes began to settle down in England and to build homes for themselves. It was then that the greatest king in the early history of England arose. The king's name was Alfred. Just as the Franks called Charles, Charlemagne, so Alfred was called The Great by his people.

When Alfred came to the throne of England in 871 A.D., he found the country in a sorry condition. The tribes were fighting among themselves again, and the plundering Danes made



320 the people fearful and weak. Alfred persuaded the English tribes to co-operate in order to meet the Danes. Led by their brave king, the English troops defeated the Danes. The Danes were given a large section of England to live in. Their leader and many of his followers became Christians. For a long time they kept the peace.

Alfred gathered together all the laws observed by the people of England and selected the ones that were best for his people. Whenever he could do so justly, he favored the poor, for the "poor have no friend but the king," he said. The greatest work that Alfred did for England was to encourage learning. He built more monasteries and brought scholars to them. He himself translated books from Latin into the Anglo-Saxon language so that his people could read them. In the preface of one of these books he wrote: "When I came to the throne, the decay of

Alfred the Great encouraged his people to learn to read. What other things did he do for England? What is he saying to his men, do you suppose?



learning was so great in England that there were very few who could understand the church services. Therefore it seems better to me for us to translate some books which are most needful for men to know into a language which we can understand.”

After Alfred died, conditions in England were very unsettled. Every man had to have some kind of an overlord to protect him. Then the peasants became serfs; the farmers who had owned their land had to give it to some noble in exchange for protection; and all the nobles and warriors were vassals to the nobles who surrounded the king. For more than a hundred and fifty years after Alfred died, conditions in England did not improve. Then something happened which brought about many changes.

ENGLAND UNDER THE NORMANS

When King Edward of England died, William, Duke of Normandy, claimed that King Edward had promised him the English throne. The English refused to accept William and chose Harold, a very powerful English earl, as their king. William gathered an army and crossed the channel to fight for the English crown. We read about this in the chapter on France.

The Battle of Hastings

King Harold met the Duke of Normandy near Hastings on October 14, 1066. The English army was made up mostly of poorly armed farmers who had quickly left their fields to fight. William's army was a brilliant array of Norman knights, who were trained soldiers clad in fine armor. They were led into battle by a minstrel, tossing his sword into the air and catching it again and again, as he sang the Song of Roland.

For nine long hours the battle raged. Once it looked as if William had lost, but he rallied his forces and his fortune changed. An arrow killed Harold, and the last Anglo-Saxon king of England was gone. The battle was over, and William

322 marched triumphantly to London. Since then, he has been called William the Conqueror. On Christmas Day William, Duke of Normandy, was crowned King of England.

The Normans Changed England

William chose London for his capital. London is located about forty miles up the Thames River. Today it covers 700 square miles. In William's time it covered less than one square mile, but it already had a long story, going back to the days before the Romans came to Britain. Almost the first thing William did was to grant the city of London a charter.

William brought with him to England many followers from Normandy, tradesmen, bankers, farmers, and craftsmen. He did much to encourage trade and industry in London and all over his land. William brought with him many knights, also. In

William and his duchess, Matilda, riding through the streets of London to his coronation. How had he become king?



order to control his new land, William displaced the English nobles and scattered Norman nobles all over England, giving them large tracts of land as fiefs. In order to collect the taxes on all of his land, he had the names of all property-holders listed in a book, with a description of their land and property. This book is called the *Doomsday Book*. From the record in this book, we learn many interesting facts about England in those days.

The Normans taught the English new ways of building. William decided he wanted a castle in London like those he had lived in in Normandy. He sent to Normandy for Bishop Gundolf to build a tower that would stand before all his subjects as a symbol of his strength and power. Gundolf built the Tower of London. Of course he built it of stone, and it was so strong that the tower still stands. Today it is called the White Tower. It is the oldest section of the Tower of London.



Normans Changed the Anglo-Saxon Language

When the Normans came to England, the English people spoke the Anglo-Saxon language. By that time it did not sound like the Anglo-Saxon of Alfred's time. Latin words and Danish words had been added to the language. For instance, the words *family*, *agriculture*, and *street* come from the Latin words, *familia*, *agricola*, and *strata via*. *Law*, *ugly*, *happy*, *skull*, *skin*, and *sky* are all Danish words. In fact, many of our words that begin with *sk* were given to our language by the Danes.

When the Normans conquered England, William immediately made French the language of the court. Little by little the Englishmen mixed many French words with the Anglo-Saxon. For instance, a Norman wrapped himself in a garment that looked like a bell and which he called by the French word for bell, *cloche*. From that came the word cloak. When the Anglo-Saxon pigs and cows and calves and sheep came to table as meat, they were given French names, *pork* and *beef* and *veal* and *mutton*.



The people of England became very patriotic and did not like to have a foreign language used by their government. By 1362 a law was passed requiring English to be used instead of French. By that time the English language was far different from the language of King Alfred's court. The English language today is far different from the English language in 1362, for it continues to grow and change.

Other New Ways of Living



Under the Normans, the life of the people of England became more comfortable and refined. The Normans brought new trades and skills to England. The Normans wore beards and had fancy ways of fixing their hair, and they brought barbers who taught the English their skills. The weavers who came with the Normans taught the English how to weave beautiful patterns in wool and silk. French metalworkers taught the English to make strong armor.

Under the rule of William and his descendants the Normans added many worthwhile things to Anglo-Saxon life. As they learned from each other, Anglo-Saxons and Normans became one people. Today the English nation is made up of descendants of all the tribes that once lived on English soil and of the Normans who came in the days of William the Conqueror.

IMPORTANT IDEAS IN LAW AND GOVERNMENT



In 1154 Henry II, the grandson of William the Conqueror, came to the throne of England. As in all feudal countries he found that the nobles were often fighting among themselves. Much of the petty warfare was due to unfair trials. These trials were based on ignorance and superstition.

If a man were accused, let us say, of stealing a hog, he was arrested and taken to court, which was held in the open. If the judge believed the man was not guilty, he would set him free. If the judge were doubtful, there were ways by which a man

could prove his innocence. First, there was trial by battle. The man might have a battle with his accuser in front of all the people gathered to see the trial. If the accused man won, that would prove that he was not guilty. Or he might be bound hand and foot and thrown into a pit of water. If he floated, he was not guilty. Or the accused might go through trial by fire. In this case, a pound of red-hot iron was placed in his hand to hold while he took three steps. After three days, if the hand showed a blister even “half as large as a walnut” the man was guilty.

If a man were rich or important enough, he could be taken to the court of the king to be tried. There a judge appointed by the king would listen to both sides of the story and decide who was guilty. As time went by, however, fewer and fewer trials were taken to the king’s court and the nobles were settling them by themselves. This often resulted in unfair decisions and many battles between nobles.



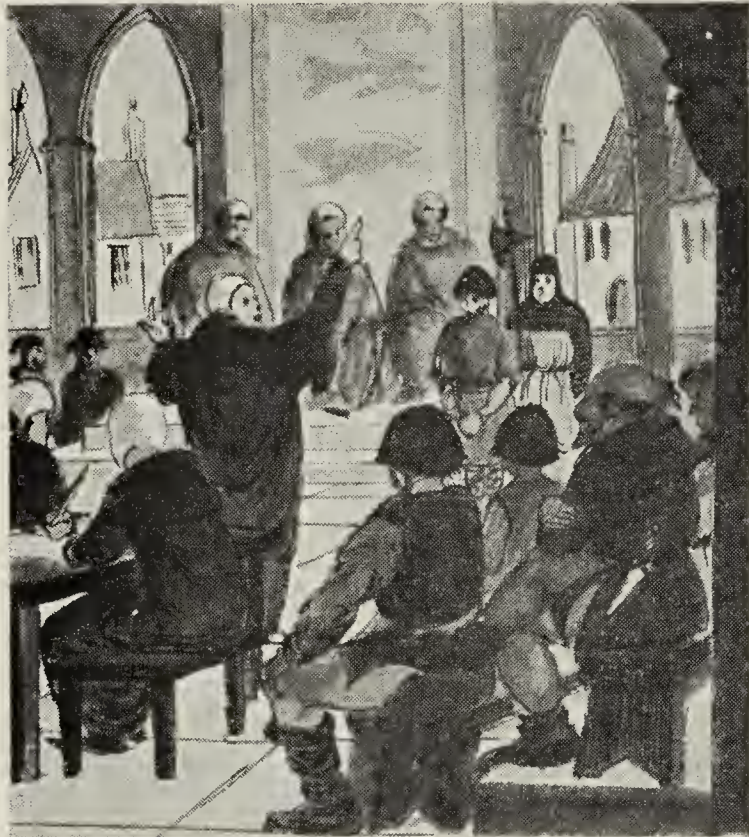
Why were early courts very unfair?

Trial by Jury

Henry II decided to improve the law courts. One of his improvements was the system of *trial by jury*. He got the idea of trial by jury not from Roman laws but from a very old English custom. When a person is suspected of guilt today in most civilized countries, he is given a trial by jury. That is, a group of people called *jurors* are chosen to decide whether or not the person on trial is innocent or guilty.

The word juror comes from the Latin word *juro* which

means *I swear*. Each juror must swear to be fair in his judgment. The chosen persons are called a *jury*. People who can give information about the crime are brought into the courtroom. These people are called *witnesses*. From the story, or testimony, of the



Find the jury and the prisoners in this early court.

witnesses and the accused person, the jury decides whether the accused is innocent or guilty.

Trial by jury gives a person an opportunity of having a fair trial. It is a gift from England in the Middle Ages. Where it is used, an accused person is not tried by chance.

The Great Charter

Richard the Lion Hearted, son of Henry II, was a famous knight, but he was a very poor ruler. He left his kingdom to take care of itself while he went on a Crusade.

When he returned home, he found

England and France at war. In the midst of the war, Richard died. Then his younger brother, John, became King of England and Duke of Normandy.

John was crafty and brutal. He did many things of which his nobles did not approve. John tried to gather all the power over the country into his own hands. His nobles realized that if he were allowed to continue, the king would take away all of their rights as freemen. Secretly they drew up in writing a statement, or charter, of all the things the king would *not* be allowed to do. They took a solemn oath that they would force the king to agree to the charter.

When King John came back from his defeat at Bouvines in 1215, the nobles met him at Runnymede, an island in the

Thames River, not far from London. They presented the charter to the king and demanded that he put his seal upon it to make it a law. When the king read the charter, he was furious. If he agreed to it, the charter would strip him of much of his power and ways of getting money. "Why do ye not ask for my kingdom?" John cried. As he looked about him, however, he knew it was useless to refuse, so he set his seal upon the charter.

The Great Charter, as the nobles' charter is called, is perhaps the greatest document in the story of how people learned to govern themselves. It was the first time that freemen had demanded in writing, promises from their king which gave them certain liberties. This was a long step forward in government. It was not entirely democratic, however. The nobles were interested in preserving the rights only of freemen. At that time only one sixth of the people of England were freemen.

Representative Government

Since Anglo-Saxon times the king could call a meeting of nobles and clergy to give him advice and help and to agree to plans which he wanted to carry out. In time this meeting was called the *Great Council*. Later the name *Parliament* was given to it. Parliament comes from the French word *parler*, which means *to speak*.

For a long time only the nobles and clergy were allowed to sit in Parliament. The common people were not allowed to help make the laws of the land. Finally, however, in 1275 the king called a Parliament together which included all classes of people: the clergy, the nobles, and the common people. Because



The earliest House of Commons.

not all the common people could take the journey to London, they chose men to represent them. Ever since this time, the “commons,” or representatives of the common people, have always been included in the government. This parliament was called the *Model Parliament*.

At last the people had a share in making and keeping the laws of England. In time, Parliament separated into two groups, one made up of the lords and clergy and the other of the representatives of the common people. These two groups are now called the House of Lords and the House of Commons.

The English idea of having a few men chosen to represent all of the people in making the laws of the land was a great step forward in government. The United States and many of the governments of the world now use the representative form of government.

A LONG PERIOD OF WARS

While improvements were being made in the life and government of the people of England, the kings' armies fought many wars. The poets of the Britons in Ireland, Wales, and Scotland sang of the time when the Britons would reconquer the land they had lost to the English. For hundreds of years these Britons managed to remain independent. After much brave and stubborn fighting, however, parts of Eire, and all of Wales and Scotland were subdued and united with England into one kingdom. An English king gave his son to the Welsh as their prince. Ever since then the title of “Prince of Wales” has been given to the heir to the throne of England. The Scots revolted, however, and it was not until a hundred years after the end of the Middle Ages that Scotland united with England.

The Hundred Years' War

The crafty King John lost all but a small part of the land in France which the English kings once held. Because of this, the

English kings decided to fight for the French crown. For a hundred years there was fighting between the kings.

When the weak king, Charles VII, became King of France, it looked very much as if England would gain what she was fighting for, the French crown. Then it was, however, that Jeanne d'Arc offered to lead the armies of France. When the English troops gained no more victories, Parliament refused to grant the king money to carry on the war. Little by little, the English troops were pushed out of France. Finally, in 1453, the last bit of land in France ruled by the English king passed into the hands of the French. The long war was over.

The Wars of the Roses Helped to End Feudalism in England

After the Hundred Years' War came the Wars of the Roses. These wars were fought between two noble families, the House of York and the House of Lancaster. Each house wanted to be the royal family of England. The followers of the House of York wore red roses as a badge and the followers of the House of Lancaster wore white roses. For thirty years these two families and their followers fought each other. In the end, the House of Lancaster won, and King Henry VII took the throne.

The Wars of the Roses were very costly. Much time and thought and money were spent for fighting which might have been spent for better ways of living. The wars did only one good thing. They helped to hasten the end of the feudal government. The people demanded a strong king who could keep order and prevent such disgraceful and costly wars between nobles.

By 1500, England had a strong king to keep order, and a parliament in which many of the people were represented.



THINGS TO DO

I. QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS.

1. Name all the groups of people who lived in the British Isles before William the Conqueror.

2. What are the two most important things Alfred the Great did for England?
3. When and why was the Battle of Hastings fought? How did the Normans improve British ways of living? What is the *Doomsday Book*?
4. How did the English language grow?
5. What were some early ways of proving a man's innocence? Can you describe a trial by jury?
6. What was the Great Council? How does it resemble England's present-day Parliament?
7. What was the Great Charter? Why is it famous?
8. What caused the Hundred Years War?
9. How long did the Wars of the Roses last? What one good thing did they accomplish?
10. Can you name some important gifts which came to us out of England's past?

II. HISTORY DEFINITIONS AND NEW WORDS.

<i>Anglo-Saxon</i>	<i>Doomsday Book</i>
<i>accuser</i>	<i>guilty</i>
<i>innocent</i>	<i>trial by jury</i>
<i>representative government</i>	<i>Parliament</i>

III. MANY GROUPS. There were many groups of people who invaded Britain during Ancient Times and the Middle Ages. Make a chart to show who these groups were, where they came from, and what happened as a result of each invasion.

IV. A QUIZ PROGRAM. Arrange a Quiz Program on England's story. Use names and events in this chapter.

V. FROM WHICH LANGUAGE? In your notebook make a list of ten things in your schoolroom. Look in the dictionary to find the language root of the word and write it beside each name.



Chapter 21

Spain

Just as men of the Old Stone Age and the New Stone Age lived in France and England in prehistoric times, so they lived in Spain. Spain is located on the Iberian (ī·bēr'ī·ăn) Peninsula. The Iberian Peninsula gets its name from the Iberians, who came out of North Africa in search of a place to live. One after another, the Phoenicians, Greeks, and Carthaginians founded colonies along the eastern and southern coasts of the Iberian Peninsula. They wanted to mine for gold, silver, lead, and copper. It was these early traders who gave the peninsula its name. They called it *Spania*, or Spain, which means "hidden land."

THE ROMANS AND THE TEUTONS

When Rome grew strong, she took Spain into her empire. The Romans governed Spain for about six hundred years, from 206 B.C. to 409 A.D. A traveler in Spain in 400 A.D. would easily know that he was in a part of the Roman Empire, for the ways of living in Spain were the ways of living of Rome. Like Rome, Spain had many slaves who worked for the nobles. As the nobles grew rich, they grew lazy and greedy for power. They began to fight among themselves for the highest places in the government. When rulers are not united, a government

grows weak. Like the rest of the Roman Empire, Spain grew weak.

Teutons Invaded Spain

Soon after 400 A.D. Teutonic tribes invaded Spain. The strongest of these were the Visigoths (vīz'ī·gōths). They became masters of the entire Iberian Peninsula.

Because the Visigoths were Christians, the Church helped the kings to hold the country together. In order to bring order to the land quickly, the old Roman laws which the people understood were combined with the Gothic laws and laws which the Church made. The Church was very strong in Spain before the Visigoths came. It grew stronger under the Visigothic kings.



Under the Visigoths, conditions among the common people grew very bad. Under the Gothic rule, slavery was still permitted. The Spanish Jews, prosperous and well educated, had many of their rights as free citizens taken away from them. Because of heavy taxes many shopkeepers had to give up their industries. This threw many craftsmen out of work. In the midst of the wars among the nobles, many people gave up their lands and freedom to become serfs in exchange for protection. Therefore, under the rule of the Visigoths there were very many poor people and very few freemen. With jealous nobles always at war with one another and with many poor and dissatisfied people, a country is not strong. It cannot hold off an enemy if it is attacked.

SPAIN UNDER THE MOORS

In 711 Mohammedan Arabs and Berbers of North Africa invaded the Iberian Peninsula. A few Christian nobles still held out in the mountains of northern Spain. Most of Spain, however, became a part of the Arabian Empire.

The Moslems set up a government in Spain with their capital at Cordova. The Christian church was supervised by the Mos-

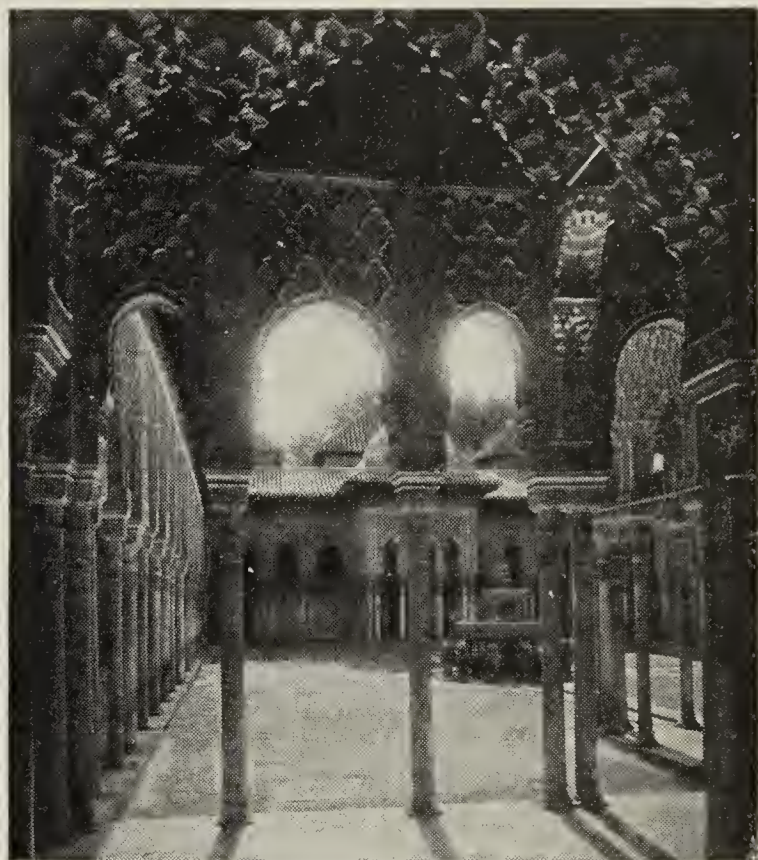
lem government. All able-bodied Christian men had to pay a heavy poll tax. The Christians were allowed, however, to keep their lands, their language, their laws, and their religion. In time the Christians changed to the Arabic language, especially for writing, took on many other Arabic ways of living, and some even married Moslems.

Some people gained much from the new rulers. If a person became a Moslem, he did not have to pay a poll tax. If a slave accepted the Moslem faith, he became a free-man. Before long, there were many among the poor and the slaves who gave up Christianity to become Moslems. Now the Jews were allowed great freedom to carry on business and to educate their children.

As time went on, the Moslem kingdom in Spain was called the Kingdom of the Moors and the people were called Moors. Coming from the Arabian Empire, the Moors brought with them better ways of living than they found in Spain. When the rest of Europe was going through the darkest centuries of the Middle Ages, the Moors built up a fine civilization.

Moorish Ways of Living

The Moors knew how to farm even better than the Romans. They irrigated the dry soil of Spain; they used fertilizers, rotated crops, and developed many new varieties of plants and fruits. They brought to Europe many new products: cotton, flax, beans, asparagus, coffee, rice, sugar cane, melons, apricots, oranges, lemons, and plums.



The Moors were Moslems and built beautiful mosques in Spain.

The Moorish craftsmen made many beautiful and useful things. They were famous for beautifully woven silks and tapestries and for products made from steel. Many of their cities specialized in certain products. The city of Cordova was known for its leather goods; Granada, silks; and Toledo, armor. The Moors knew the secret of dyeing cloth and of making writing paper. Their potters and weavers and glassmakers could not be matched in all Europe. The Moors also knew how to make soap. They had many public baths and kept clean with soap and water.

The Moors carried on very large trade with other countries. Their products were found all over Europe and the East. Many a wealthy noble proudly wore fine leather boots from Cordova and gave his wife silk gowns woven in Granada. As their traders went to all the known ports, they carried not only goods but ideas also. They brought into Europe the Arabic numerals with

What does this street scene in Cordova tell you about the Moors? Look at it carefully



the handy zero, which they had learned about from India; the astrolabe (ās'trō·lāb), an instrument used by Greek sailors and improved by the Arabs; medical knowledge and hospitals; and new ideas for building.

One of the ways the Moors showed their greatest skill and beauty was in their architecture, especially in their churches, called mosques (mōsks). They were adorned by many slender minarets and mosaics.

The Moors had many beautiful cities and centers of learning, but their capital, Cordova, led them all. In fact, Cordova at its height had only two rivals in the world, Bagdad, the capital of the Arabian Empire, and Constantinople. In this city of 500,000 people there were three hundred beautiful mosques, more than three hundred public baths, many stately palaces, libraries, busy industries, and a great university with thousands of students. Cordova had the greatest book market in Spain.

and find all the interesting things that you can about them.



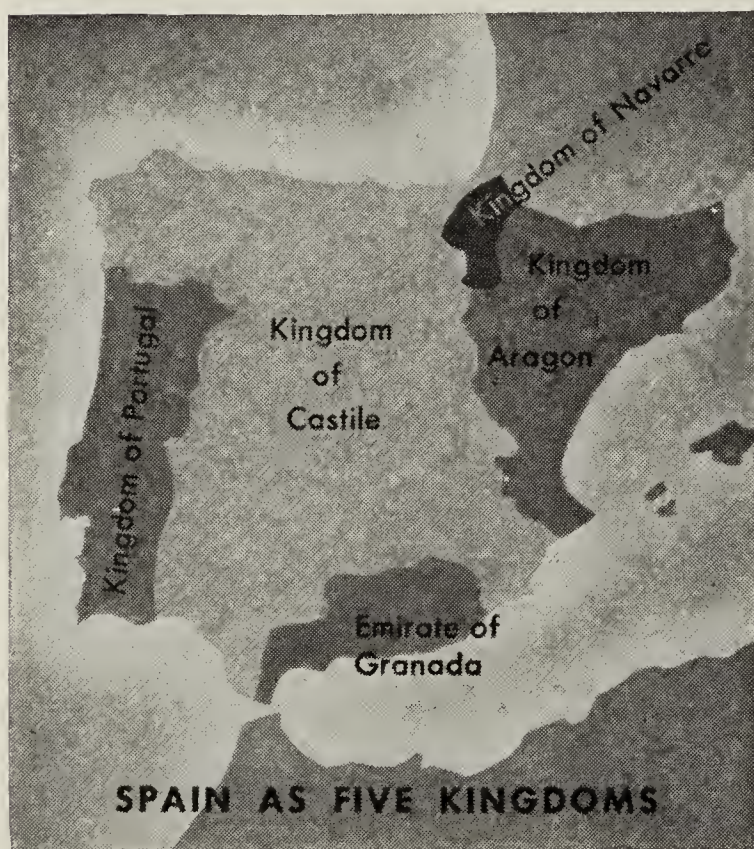
Although the Moors achieved great things in learning and crafts, they were not good planners. For two hundred years the Moorish rulers of Spain were at war with other Arab leaders who were jealous for power. The land of the Moors was soon broken up into many small sections under independent rulers.

THE CHRISTIAN KINGDOMS OF SPAIN

The Moors were never able to conquer the northern part of Spain. The Christians who lived there continued to fight against the Moors. The Pope at Rome and the Christian nobles of Europe encouraged the Spanish Christians to reconquer Spain. The struggle to retake Spain from the Moors became a crusade.

How Small Kingdoms Became Larger and Stronger

The Christian nobles in northern Spain built strong castles, surrounded by lands which their serfs tilled. One of the Span-



ish kingdoms was named Castile because it had so many castles. Castile swallowed up Leon, another kingdom. When Alfonso, King of Leon and Castile (1072–1109), came to the throne he rode his horse all the way south to the very spot where the Moslems first landed in Spain. On that journey he got a vision of a united Spain. Then the war to retake Spain for the Christians really started in earnest.

Like Castile, the kingdom of Aragon grew braver and stronger, too. Her warriors conquered the rich country of Barcelona and all of the land down to the Ebro River. A prince of Leon and

Castile gained a great victory over the Moors on the west coast of Spain. Here he founded the Kingdom of Portugal. Finally, the Moors lost everything but the mountainous stronghold of Granada on the south.

By this time, Castile was the largest of all the Christian kingdoms. She should have been able to unite all of Spain quickly and easily. Her kings and nobles, however, were so taken up with feuds and struggles that the Moors were able to hold Granada for two hundred years longer.

Life in the Christian Kingdoms

During the many years that wars were fought, life in all of the Christian kingdoms of Spain grew very much alike. The Christians were divided into classes. There was the king at the top, with the nobles and clergy following him. The freemen in the towns came next. Beneath these were the slaves and serfs.

The kings and their nobles and many of the clergy lived in strong castles surrounded by manors tilled by the serfs. When they were not fighting, they lived a gay life. The rich townsmen built beautiful palaces for themselves. Here and there throughout the kingdoms, monks lived in their comfortable monasteries farming their lands and helping the sick and needy. Everywhere, in the country and in the towns, lived the many, many poor people in hovels, dressed in poor clothes and often hungry.

The church became very strong in the Christian kingdoms. Monasteries, churches, cathedrals, and schools were built throughout the kingdoms. Most of these showed a new kind of architecture. They had horseshoe arches, vaulted roofs, and designs as delicate as lace, copied from the Arabs. Towns grew up in the Christian kingdoms. Guilds were formed among the craftsmen and merchants. Rich townsmen began to be important.

A body of advisers to the king grew up in each Christian kingdom. It was called the Cortes (kôr'těz). In the beginning, only nobles and clergy were invited to sit in the Cortes. But in

1188 A.D., in the Cortes of Leon, the townsmen were represented. This was the *first time in any country of Europe that the common people were represented in government*. Of course the slaves and serfs had no voice in the government.

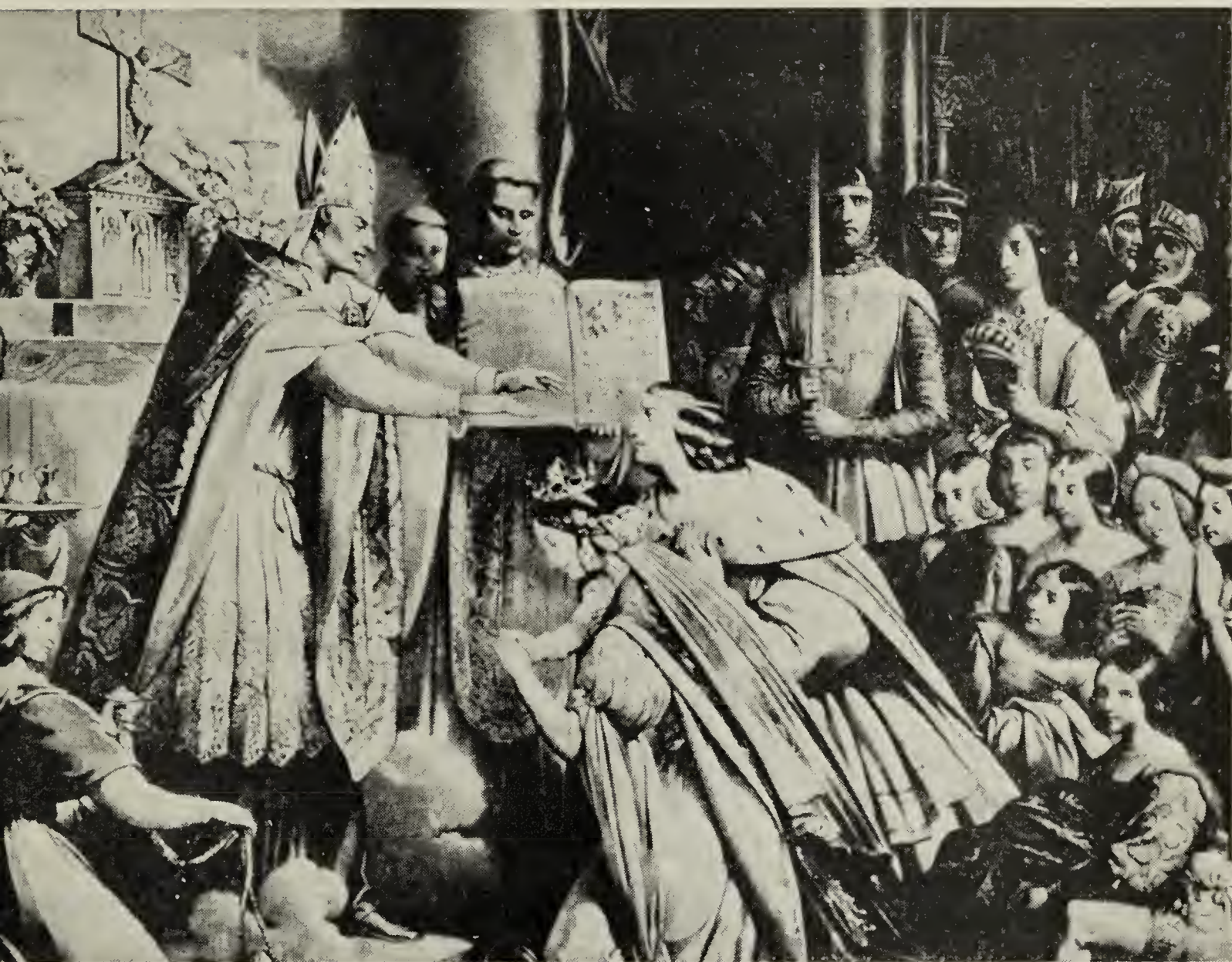
The language of the Christian kingdoms was Latin. Many new words were added to the Latin, however, from the Visigoths and the Moors. Furthermore, each little kingdom had its own dialect, or way of speaking its language. When Castile became very large and very important, the kind of Spanish spoken in Castile became popular in all the kingdoms. In time, Castilian Spanish became the language of Spain, though to this day many people still speak the dialect of their special district.

SPANISH KINGDOMS UNITED IN ONE NATION

By 1469 there were five kingdoms on the Iberian Peninsula. They were the Kingdom of Aragon, the Kingdom of Navarre,

The Cortes in Spain represented the common people.





What did the marriage of Ferdinand and Isabella do for the kingdom of Spain?

the Kingdom of Castile, the Kingdom of Portugal, and the Moorish state of Granada.

The largest of the kingdoms was Castile. In Aragon, the kingdom east of Castile, a powerful and ambitious king was ruler. He wanted to unite his kingdom with Castile. He believed that Aragon and Castile together could make Spain one strong nation. Furthermore, they could conquer the last of the Moors in Granada. But how could he unite Aragon and Castile?

A Famous Marriage

This is the way the king of Aragon solved the problem. He arranged a secret wedding between his son Ferdinand and Isabella of Castile, who claimed she should be the ruler of Castile when the king of Castile died. The secret marriage of Ferdinand and Isabella is probably one of the most famous in history. When Ferdinand and Isabella became joint rulers of Castile and Ara-

gon, they made a strong nation, which covered most of the peninsula. Their creed was "One God, One King, One Law." The new king and queen put a stop to the fighting among the nobles in their kingdom. The king controlled all the armies. So the power of feudalism in their kingdom was broken. There was more peace in Spain than there had been for many a year. Then the new rulers conquered Granada. After almost eight hundred years, the power of the Moors in Spain was now completely gone.



Spain Became United and Strong

Ferdinand and Isabella decided that to help unite all of the kingdoms of Spain they would demand that all their subjects become Christian. They started a cruel persecution of the Jews and other non-Christians. Thousands of them lost their lives, others lost all their wealth, and many were sent out of Spain. When Granada fell, the Christians felt strong enough to expel all of the Jews. This is a very dark chapter in the story of Spain.

A few years after Granada fell, the little Kingdom of Navarre was added to Spain. For a time the Christian Kingdom of Portugal was a part of Spain, but it later broke away. Ever since, it has been a nation by itself. But Spain had been united as one of the nations of Europe.

THINGS TO DO

I. QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS.

1. Can you name the kinds of people who lived in Spain before it became a Roman province?
2. Who were the Visigoths? Were the Visigoths good rulers?
3. Who took Spain from the Visigoths?
4. How did the Moslems treat the Christians and Jews? What was their kingdom called? What was the name of their capital city?

5. How did the civilization of the Moors compare with the ways of living in Western Europe? Can you name some skills in which the Moors excelled?
6. What were some of the weaknesses of the Moorish rulers?
7. Did the Moors subdue all of the Christians in Spain? What king got a vision of a united Spain?
8. Can you describe the life of the people in the Christian kingdoms? What was the Cortes? What language became popular in the kingdoms?
9. What was the last Moorish stronghold? What king and queen finally destroyed it?

II. HISTORY DEFINITIONS AND NEW WORDS.

Moors *astrolabe* *mosque* *Cortes*

III. STUDY THE MAP OF SPAIN. Make a list of all the important places mentioned in this story. Be sure you know how to spell them correctly and can locate them.

IV. INVADERS OF SPAIN. Many groups invaded Spain. Make a poster to show who the invaders were, when they came and what happened as a result of their invasion. Draw pictures to illustrate your poster.

V. SPAIN'S TIME LINE. Appoint a committee to make a time line that shows all the important events in Spain.

VI. WORDS TELL A STORY. Some words in our language came from the Arabs and the Moors: *apricot*, *orange*, *traffic*, *algebra*, *zero*, *guitars*, *monsoon*. What do these words tell us about their ways of living?



Chapter 22

Other Peoples of Europe in the Middle Ages

By the end of the Middle Ages, France, England, Spain, and many other nations of Europe were well started. At that time some of the nations we know today were divided into many small parts. Two of these were Italy and Germany. They were not united nations then, as they are today.

During all the troubles that came to Western Europe after the breakup of the Roman Empire, trading had never stopped in Italy. In the Middle Ages industry and trade increased and the guilds became very important. The large cities of northern Italy became prosperous trading centers. Without strong kings to unite them into a nation, each city governed itself. In time, they annexed the lands around them. They became city-states, ruled by the guilds and the leading families.

In what later became Germany there were also many small states. These little countries were not brought under the rule of one government until many years after the Middle Ages. In the early period, the northern cities in the Hanseatic League were very strong. They were stronger than any part of Germany during the Middle Ages.

Switzerland

A very few of the many small German parts of Europe formed one of the most interesting nations of the world, the little nation of Switzerland. It did not come about by the efforts of kings or nobles. It was the common people themselves who threw off the power of the nobles to form their own independent nation.

On the shores of beautiful Lake Lucerne (lŭ·sŭrn'), high in the Alps, there are three little organized communities, or cantons (kăn'tŏns), called the Forest Cantons. Their names are Uri (ŏŏ'rĕ), Schwyz, (shvĕts), and Unterwalden (ŏŏn'tĕr·văl'dĕn). In each of these cantons there was a castle which belonged to its overlord.

Every once in a while the overlord sent a noble to live in the castle to collect taxes, and to act as a judge in disputes.

As the years went by, seven other cantons joined the three Forest Cantons. Most of these people spoke German, but some spoke French and others Italian. The love of liberty proved stronger than a common language and held them all together. What a nation common men had made for themselves! Each canton ruled itself but was pledged to help all of the other cantons. Laws were passed which helped the cantons live in peace together. Schools were started; farming, forestry, and hand-crafts flourished; and great thinkers helped to guide the little nation of Switzerland.



Beautiful Switzerland.

The Scandinavian Countries

Norway, Sweden, and Denmark are called the Scandinavian countries. The Scandinavians, or Norsemen, were Teutons who settled in Scandinavia in prehistoric times. The Norsemen started out as traders, exchanging furs and wool and fish for clothing and luxuries. It was not long, however, before they learned that they could get more things by raiding and pirating.

The Norsemen were called rovers of the sea, or Vikings. For about three hundred years, between 750–1050 A.D., they possessed the greatest sea power of Europe.

While today, Norway, Denmark, and Sweden are independent countries, in the Middle Ages the lives of these countries were closely woven together. Sometimes Norway and Denmark were ruled by one king and sometimes one ruler wore the crown of all three countries. On the whole, the Danes were the most powerful rulers all during the Middle Ages. Finally, all three kingdoms signed a treaty which united them until the end of the Middle Ages. Because the treaty was drawn up in the fortress of Kalmar, it is called the Union of Kalmar.

The Union of Kalmar did not bring peace and order to the three Scandinavian countries, however. They had many disagreements with the many Hanse cities in northern Europe.



Within their lands there was constant trouble among the nobles, the kings, and the clergy. After a long time, the power of the nobles was broken, the feudal lands were taken over by the kings, and the common people were given a larger share in the government. By the end of the Middle Ages, Sweden and Denmark were independent nations. Norway was ruled by the king of Denmark.

The Slavs Formed Nations

Long before the birth of Christ the Slavs lived around the sources of the Dnieper (nē'pēr), Don, and Vistula rivers. When the tribes became too large, they began to look for new homes. Slavs started many nations in Europe.

Like the Teutons, some of the Slavs invaded the Roman Empire. They started two nations, Bulgaria and Serbia. The Slavs conquered most of the Balkan Peninsula but, in turn, they were conquered by the Turks. North of the Danube River strong tribes of Czechs (chěks) and Moravians formed a nation.

The Poles, another Slavic people, formed a strong nation in the Middle Ages. Poland was located along the Baltic Sea. She took into her kingdom the nation the Czechs and Moravians had formed and other Slavic lands around them. In 1386 the Queen of Poland married her neighbor, the Grand Prince of Lithuania. When Poland and Lithuania united, Poland became one of the most powerful nations in Europe.

RUSSIA

Russia, the largest country in Europe today, became a nation in the Middle Ages. As the Slavs began to move about, many of them settled on the plains and in the forests on both sides of the Dnieper River and along the rivers and lakes farther north and east. These Slavs became the Russians. The Russians were peaceful farmers. They cleared their land and built log houses



346 from the timber. Like all of their neighbors, they worshipped many gods.

Beginnings of the Russian Nation

During the Viking Period many Norse traders came down the rivers of Russia. The Slavs of the north asked the Norseman, Rurik, to rule them, and Rurik became Prince of Novgorod. When Rurik died, his son, Oleg, became the Prince. He set up his capital at Kiev. This was the beginning of the Russian nation.



Missionaries came to Russia from Bulgaria and Constantinople. They carried the teachings of the Eastern Church to all of the people living along the rivers and in the forests. The missionaries built monasteries and wooden churches with tall sloping roofs and domes shaped like bulbs. They taught the people how to read the religious books and to understand the church service in their own language. The Russians became Christians, members of the Eastern Church.

Early in the history of Russia the veche (vēch) started. The veche was the town assembly, which all freemen were permitted to attend. The members of the veche managed all local government affairs. There were no regular times for meetings. The members simply came together at the ringing of the town bell.

Ivan III Made Russia Strong

While the Russian nation was being formed, Mongols overran much of Asia and Europe. The Mongols who poured into Russia were called Tartars. The Russians had to pay heavy taxes to the Tartar chiefs and to furnish them with soldiers. No Grand Prince could rule in Russia until he was approved by the Tartars.



Finally the princes of Moscow won one victory after another over the Tartars. When Ivan III became Grand Prince of Moscow in 1462, he set out to make Russia a strong, united nation.

Most of his success came not by battles but by wise plans. Although Ivan III had a large army, he seldom used it.

In those days, as now, the city of Moscow was the capital of Russia. The oldest part of the city was built like a circle, surrounded by a wall. It is called the Kremlin. Within the walls of the Kremlin the important government buildings were erected. The palaces, the treasury, and the arsenal, were there.

Outside the walls of the Kremlin, the people built their homes, their shops, their market places, their churches. The roofs of their palaces and churches were made of colored tile and stone, or just painted in brilliant colors. Many of the domes of the churches were covered with gold.

Ivan III destroyed the Tartar rule and united most of Russia. He improved the law courts, also. Judges were forced to conduct trials in a fair way and were forbidden to take bribes. Many of the laws of Russia had gone out of date. Ivan III prepared a new code of laws to keep up with the changing times. The new laws gave the ruler of Russia more power, but unfortunately they gave the people less. The peasants had to work the large estates.

Beginning with Ivan III, the Russian rulers took more and more power for themselves. Russia became an autocracy, a nation ruled by one person. Ivan took the title of Sovereign of Russia. In dealing with foreign powers he called himself Tsar (tsär), or Caesar. Ivan III died in 1505. By that time Russia had become a strong nation.

The Fall of Constantinople

In southeastern Europe, Constantinople was the great city of the Eastern Roman Empire and of the Eastern Church. But in time, the Balkan Peninsula was settled largely by Slavs. The Slavs became Christians. The territory over which Constantinople ruled grew smaller and smaller as the Slavs set up their own states. Finally, in 1453, the Turks conquered Constantinople.



THINGS TO DO

I. QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS.

1. Can you name two European countries of today which were not united into strong nations during the Middle Ages?
2. How did Switzerland become a nation?
3. What are the names of the Scandinavian countries?
4. What was the Union of Kalmar?
5. Where and how did the Russian nation begin? To what religion were the Russians converted?
6. What Grand Prince destroyed the power of the Tartars in Russia? What else did he do for Russia?

This is the way Europe looked at the end of the Middle Ages. What countries were united nations? What were split up into small parts? The large white area in the center of Europe is about where Germany is today. It was split up into many parts in 1500.



canton Slavs Kremlin Viking Age
veche mir United Nations czar

- III. FAMOUS MEN. Pretend that you are one of the famous men who lived in one of the nations you have studied. Tell who you are and something about what you did. Decide which ones should go in the Hall of Fame.

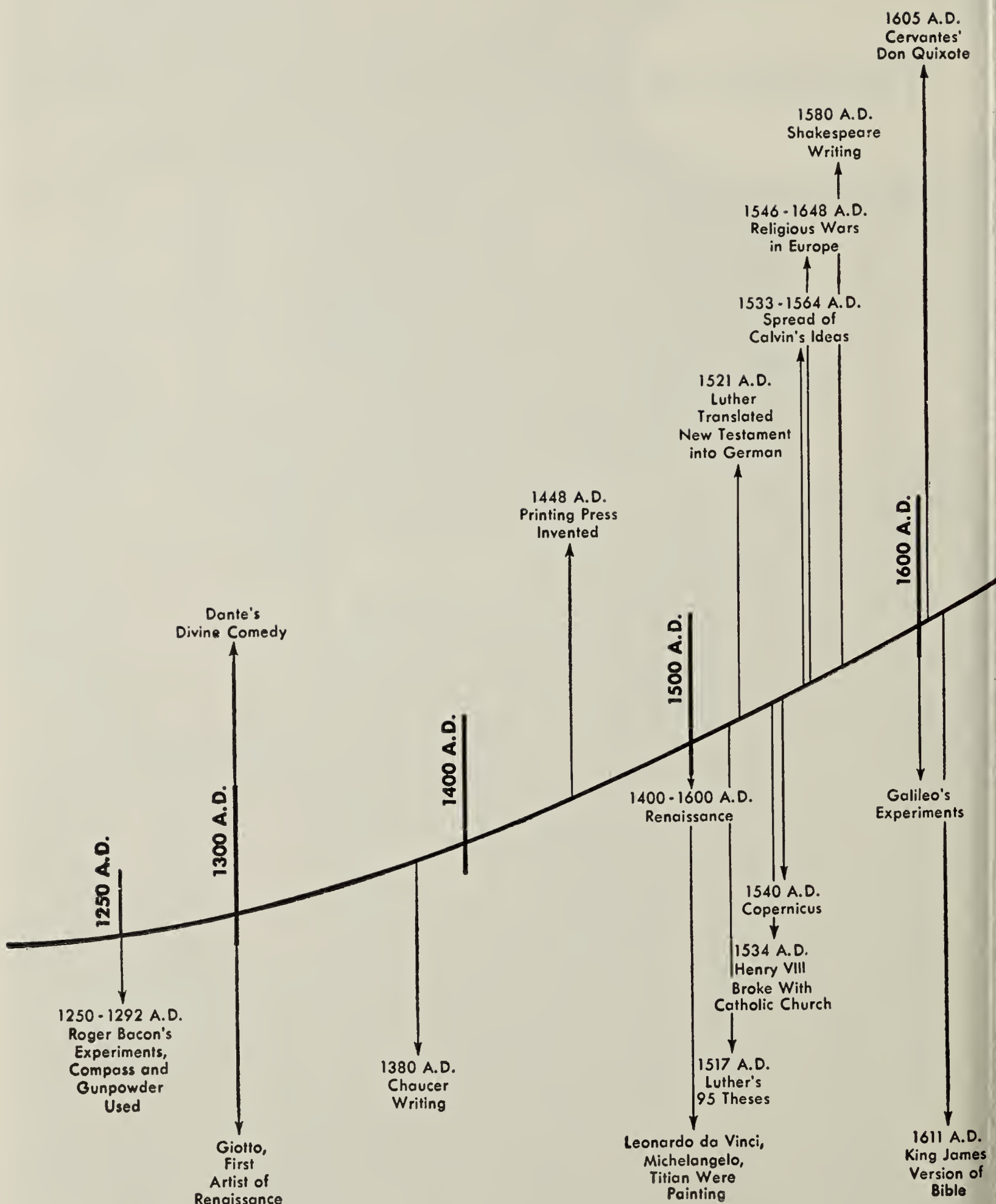
LET'S REVIEW

- I. NEWS OF NATIONS TODAY. Look in the newspaper for clippings about nations today. Post them on your bulletin board under signs that tell the name of the nation and about when it became a nation.
- II. A MEETING OF DIFFERENT NATIONALITIES. Arrange a program in which people from each of the nations you have studied about in this unit meet each other. Each person may tell why he is proud of his nation.
- III. YOUR COSTUME BOOK AND BOOK OF HOMES. Remember to add pictures to show how people lived and dressed in the nations you have read about in this unit.
- IV. A HOME-MADE TEST. Have each member of the class prepare a Matching Test on Unit VI.
- V. LET'S READ.
Joan, Maid of France by J. Christophe Herold, Aladdin Books, American Book Company
The Merry Adventures of Robin Hood by Howard Pyle, Charles Scribner's Sons
Otto of the Silver Hand by Howard Pyle, Charles Scribner's Sons

Unit 7



The Reawakening of Europe





Chapter 23

The Renaissance in Literature

R*enaissance* (rě'ně·säns') is a French word which means re-birth, or revival. During the early Middle Ages people were interested only in trying to get enough to eat and someone to protect them. Before the Middle Ages were over, their interest in the people of Ancient Times and in new ways of living was reborn or revived. We call this change in Western Europe the Renaissance.

The Renaissance started in Italy. The ways of living of the Greeks and Romans were remembered best in Italy. Even in the Dark Ages trade was carried on between the Italian cities and the East. Greek colonists in Italy never forgot their language. Byzantine ways of living came into Italy. The Arabs brought to Italy the best knowledge of the day as well as of Ancient Times. When the Turks conquered Constantinople, many Greek scholars fled to Italy. Industry and trade made the cities of northern Italy rich. Wealthy citizens had leisure time to read and think and improve their ways of living. It was they who started the changes in Western Europe which are called the Renaissance.



354 From Italy, the Renaissance spread beyond the Alps until it went into all the countries of Western Europe. The Renaissance took place during the late Middle Ages and the early years of Modern Times. The greatest of the changes started about 1400

and continued to 1600. The Renaissance helped to bring the Middle Ages to a close and to start Modern Times.



An Italian merchant sells to a nobleman. What is he holding?

CHANGES IN LANGUAGE

Latin, the language of the Roman Empire, continued to be the language of Western Europe until almost 1400. Besides his own native language, every educated person could speak and read and write Latin. All books were written in Latin. The professors of the universities taught in Latin. The church services were held in Latin.

All treaties and government papers were written in Latin. The Latin language helped to hold the people of Western Europe together. As separate nations developed, however, they began to use the language of their own people, and Latin lost its importance. This was one of the most interesting changes in living which took place during the Renaissance.

The Beginnings of Modern Languages

We call the languages that took the place of Latin in Western Europe *modern languages*. There are two families of modern European languages. One family is called the *Germanic* and the other is called the *Romance* family.

With the exception of the Franks, all of the Teutonic tribes

continued to speak the language which their forefathers had used. This language is called German from the name of some of the Teutonic tribes. Not all of the tribes spoke the German language in just the same way. Whenever a group of German-speaking tribes settled down and formed a nation they formed a language also. While these languages are different from each other, they are also alike. The Germanic languages are German, English, Dutch, Flemish, Swedish, Norwegian, Danish, and Icelandic.

The English word bread shows how much alike these Germanic languages are:

English – bread
 German – brot
 Swedish – bröd
 Norwegian – brød

Danish – brød
 Dutch – brood
 Icelandic – braud
 Flemish – brood

The *Romance* languages grew in some of the lands which were once a part of the Roman Empire. They are French, Italian, Spanish, and Portuguese. These languages grew out of the way the people spoke the Latin language. As they spoke, the people often chose different words from those the writers used. Words were pronounced differently in different countries. For instance, a person writing Latin used the word *equus* (ĕc'ū·ūs) for horse. In speaking, the people used the word *caballus* (că·bă'lūs). The Spanish, Italian, French and Portuguese words for horse came from *caballus*:

Spanish – caballo
 Italian – cavallo

French – cheval
 Portuguese – cavalo

Modern languages did not grow all at once. In every country there were many dialects (dī'ă·lĕkts), or ways of speaking the language. French was spoken differently in different parts of the country: in the south, in Normandy, in Brittany, or in the Duchy of Paris. There were many dialects in England, among the Germans, and in Spain and Italy. It was not until people



356 began to write literature in the language of the people that the modern languages began to take a definite form.

Writers Helped to Form Modern Languages

Most writers of the Renaissance chose to write in their own dialects instead of in Latin. They chose words and arranged words to express their ideas in the best way. They wanted the people to understand and enjoy what they were reading. They also had to decide how to spell the words which people had been speaking but not writing. Some writers wrote the language better than others. One writer learned from another. In time, certain words and ways of expressing ideas were accepted as the best. These became the languages of the nations. Of course, no modern language stands still. It is changed as new inventions, discoveries, and new ideas add new words.



CHANGES IN LITERATURE

It was not until the Renaissance that men began to write great literature in the languages of the people. Writing in modern languages instead of in Latin was one of the great changes of the Renaissance.

The First Writer of the Renaissance

Dante (dăn'tê) was the first writer of the Renaissance. He was born in 1265 in the Italian city of Florence. In his youth, Dante learned all he could about art, music, poetry, and law. He studied Latin and Greek. He became very much interested in the writings of the ancients. Dante wrote both prose and poetry. His greatest work is a long poem called the *Divine Comedy*. In this poem Dante gives a vivid picture of what people of the Middle Ages knew and how they felt. Some people call it a "mirror of the Middle Ages." Dante wrote the *Divine Comedy* in the language of the people. This was the first time that a great piece of literature was written so the com-

mon people could read it. Dante is considered the greatest poet of Italy and one of the greatest writers of the world.

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New Interest in Old Books

In the summer of the year 1304 there was born in a little village just outside Florence a boy who became one of the most famous scholars of all Europe. He is known to us as Petrarch (pē'trärk), and his name is familiar to all who like books and stories. Petrarch admired Dante very much. Petrarch could not read Greek, but he could read Latin and he read all the Latin books he could find.

All his friends knew that the best way to please Petrarch was to give him a very old book. When he was a young man, Petrarch went on a long journey and visited all the large cities of Europe. In each city he asked to see the old books that were there. Then Petrarch would make copies of the books to take

Dante wrote books in the language that the common people of Italy spoke.



home with him. He copied whole books by hand, as people had to do in those days.

Petrarch loved his books, and read them and talked to his friends about what was in them. He wrote books of his own, too, some in Latin and some in Italian. He became very famous as a scholar and a poet. Kings from all over Europe invited him to visit them. He made many remarkable speeches about the ideas he found in the books. Other people caught his interest in old books. They searched for old manuscripts. Sometimes an Italian city staged a parade when a valuable old manuscript had been found.

The ancient manuscripts in the monasteries were copied again and again. Rich people began to buy whole libraries of these copies for their own use. Educated people all over Europe were reading and talking about Greek and Roman books. They were delighted and surprised at the way the great writers wrote about everyday life. After reading the books of the ancients, the people of Western Europe wanted to change their ways of living.

Because he got so many people interested in the books and ideas of the ancient Greeks and Romans, Petrarch is called the father of the Renaissance.



Erasmus

Erasmus was one of the most educated men of the Renaissance. He was born in Holland but he lived in Germany, France, England, and Italy, and finally died in Switzerland. In his travels he met the greatest scholars of his day. The learned men of the Renaissance were anxious to have the Bible translated from Latin into the language of the people. They felt like Erasmus when he said, "I long that the husbandmen should sing portions of the Bible to himself as he follows the plough, that the weaver should hum them to the tune of his shuttle, and that the traveler, by thinking of Bible stories, may make his journey less weary."

Many people tried to put portions of the Bible into the language of their people. The only copy of the Bible which they had to work from was one written in Latin in 400 A.D. To help them, Erasmus published the New Testament in the original Greek and then translated it into good Latin. This was a very important piece of work. It helped the translators of the New Testament to get the best meanings for their own languages.

The First Novel

It was a Spanish writer of the Renaissance who wrote the first novel. A novel is a long, imaginary story with a plot. Just think how many novels have been written since the first one! The name of the writer is Cervantes (sêr·văn'tēz) and the novel is *Don Quixote* (dôn·kwĭk'sôt).

In the Middle Ages, as we all know, there were many brave and noble knights. There were a good many false knights, too, who boasted about their great deeds, and often imagined the stories they told. Some of these imagined stories told how one knight alone slew five hundred enemy knights in a single battle, and how knights overcame dragons and giants and other strange things which never existed at all. Many people who heard these wild stories believed them.

Finally, Cervantes wrote *Don Quixote*, which made everybody laugh at the boastful stories. This book was written more than three hundred years ago, but it is still read and enjoyed by many people today. Cervantes believed in chivalry. He wanted people to be honest and true and brave, as knights were supposed to be. But he thought it ridiculous that untrue stories about the impossible deeds of knights should be believed. So he wrote the book *Don Quixote* to make fun of the untrue stories.

Don Quixote is the story of a man who read so many of the untrue stories about knights that he lost his wits. He began to think that all he read was true. Finally, Don Quixote decided to become a knight himself and to travel around doing brave deeds.

360 He got out his grandfather's armor and polished it brightly. The best horse he could get was a worn-out old farm horse, to which Don Quixote gave the high-sounding name of Rosinante (rō·-sĭn·ăn'tě). For his squire Don Quixote got a little, fat, country-



A picture from an old copy of *Don Quixote*. Can you find Sancho?

man named Sancho (săn'kō) Panza (păn'za). When all was ready, Don Quixote, dressed in armor that did not fit very well, rode away on Rosinante. Sancho followed him on a little mule.

Don Quixote, Rosinante, and Sancho had many adventures, most of them very silly. Don Quixote was always imagining he saw enemy knights, or dragons, or giants, when there weren't any such things at all. One time he and Sancho were riding along when they saw some windmills in a field. Don Quixote thought they were giants and attacked them. When Sancho asked him why he attacked the windmills, Don Quixote said they were really giants, but that they had changed themselves into

windmills because they were frightened when they saw Don Quixote coming toward them.

The story of *Don Quixote* is very funny. It helped people to stop believing in giants, dragons, witches, and such things. It made people see that one does not have to put on armor and go around doing hair-raising stunts to have the true spirit of a brave knight. Cervantes' novel taught other writers how to write novels. Because he wrote it in the language of the people, his book helped to form the Spanish language. Cervantes helped

to change men's ideas from those of the Middle Ages to those of Modern Times.

THE RENAISSANCE IN ENGLISH LITERATURE

When Geoffrey Chaucer (chô'sēr) was born in England, about the year 1340, there were few books written in English. People who wrote books wrote them in Latin or in French, thinking that English was not beautiful or dignified enough. Of course, the people living in England spoke English to each other, but they had to learn Latin or French to read books.

When Chaucer became a man he began to write stories in English, the way people talked. The people liked his stories very much. Chaucer wrote both prose and poetry. He is remembered most for his poetry. He wrote poetry so well that his poems became a pattern for other poets.

An illustration from *Canterbury Tales*. Can you find some of the characters that are mentioned in your book?



One of the most famous of Chaucer's poems is known as the *Canterbury Tales*. It is a story of England during the times of Chaucer, a story in which a group of people took a journey together and told tales to one another in order to pass the time away. The people were pilgrims on their way to visit Canterbury, and they met at the Tabard Inn in Southwark, a part of London.



Among the pilgrims were "a perfect, gentle knight," who had just returned from a Crusade, a young and gay squire, who sang and played the flute the whole long day, a monk, who loved hunting, a poor scholar from the university, a dignified merchant, a farmer, a widow, and many others. The host at the Tabard Inn was a merry soul. He proposed that each person tell a story and that the whole company give a supper in honor of the one whose tale was best. One of the best stories was told by a knight. The knight's tale, as told by Chaucer, is full of adventure and of humor. It is a story which the people of Chaucer's time liked very much.

Chaucer wrote many other books and poems in the language which the people could understand. He is sometimes called "the father of English literature" because he was the first great writer in English.

The Golden Age

About 1550, there started a very glorious time in English literature. It is called the "Golden Age of English Literature" because so many great writers lived and worked then. The greatest of the writers of this age was Shakespeare.

Shakespeare was a poet. He wrote plays and long and short poems. He is best known for his plays, which every educated person reads. Because people were interested in the ancients and in Italy, some of his best plays take place in ancient Rome and in Italy of the Renaissance. Like Dante, Shakespeare is considered one of the best poets of the world. No one has ever written bet-



ter plays than Shakespeare. After all these years, his plays are still acted by the best actors and actresses. Some of our best movies have been made from Shakespeare's plays, too.

By the time Shakespeare wrote, the English language had been pretty well formed, but his choice of words and ways of expressing his ideas helped greatly to improve it. He used 15,000 different words in his plays. Many interesting expressions from his plays have become a part of our language. Did you know that "elbow-room," "true as steel," "bag and baggage," "what's in a name?" and "I have not slept one wink," were used first by Shakespeare? Some of the lines from his plays are quoted time and again. In the play *The Merchant of Venice* Shakespeare has the heroine, Portia, say:

How far that little candle throws its beams!
So shines a good deed in a naughty world.

Shakespeare's plays were given in the Globe Theatre in London. Try to find out which play is being given here. What does the sign hung at the left mean?



Toward the end of the "Golden Age of English Literature" a new translation of the Bible into English was made. The English language was well formed by that time and the Bible was

put into the very best English. When James I came to the throne, the clergy asked the king to give them permission and money to make a translation of the Bible into the best English. The king was glad to encourage such an effort.

When the clergy had completed their work in 1611 it was published. On the title page were the words "The Holy Bible, an English Translation, Authorized by King James I." Ever since, this version of the Bible has been known as the King James or Authorized Version. The King James version of the Bible had a great influence on the English language. It became the pattern for written English. The greatest English and American writers turn to it, even today, as the best example of written English language.

From Dante and Petrarch, to

Shakespeare and the English Bible, through all of the countries of Western Europe the Renaissance in literature passed. It helped to form the modern languages; it produced many of the great masterpieces of literature; and it helped to change people's ideas from those of the Middle Ages to Modern Times.



The title page of the first Bible.

THINGS TO DO

I. QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS.

1. What do we mean by the Renaissance?
2. Why did the Latin language lose its importance?
3. Why are some languages called Germanic? Why are others called Romance languages?
4. How did writers help to make modern languages? Who wrote the first piece of great literature in the language of his people?
5. Who is called the Father of the Renaissance? Why?
6. Who was Erasmus? What was one way in which he helped the learned men of the Renaissance?
7. Who wrote the first novel? What is it called? What did it do for the people of Renaissance times?
8. Who is often called the Father of English literature? What is his most famous poem about?
9. Who was the greatest writer of the golden age in English literature?
10. Why is the King James version of the Bible still read today?

II. NEW WORDS AND HISTORY DEFINITIONS.

Renaissance *romance languages*
Germanic languages *dialects*

III. IMPORTANT CHANGES. Discuss the great changes that took place in Western Europe during the Renaissance. Make a picture poster to show the important changes in language and literature.

IV. A CHART OF FAMOUS WRITERS. Show on a chart the famous writers of the Renaissance, where they lived and

what they wrote. Put your chart in your notebook. Choose a good one to post on your bulletin board.

Famous Writers of the Renaissance		
Names of the Writers	Their Homeland	Their Books

- V. NEW WORDS IN THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE. Have a class discussion about new words that have been added to the English language in the last few years. Make a list of recent words for your class book.
- VI. ACT IT OUT. Many of you will enjoy reading the book *Don Quixote* written by Cervantes and retold by Judge Parry. Divide your class into committees to act out scenes from this amusing story.
- VII. TELL ABOUT HIM. Pretend that you are someone who lived at the time of one of the famous writers of the Renaissance and knew him well. Write a letter to a friend telling what you know about the great writer and his work. Read your letters to your classmates.

Chapter 24

New Interest in Art



One day an artist of Florence, Italy, found a shepherd boy making pictures of his sheep upon the side of a rock. His pictures were so lifelike that the artist took the boy to the city to become his apprentice. The lad was so talented that soon he was painting more beautiful pictures than his master.

NEW IDEAS IN ART

This shepherd artist was called Giotto (jôt'tô). He lived between the years of 1266 and 1337. Until Giotto's time, artists of the Middle Ages of Western Europe had followed the ideas of Byzantine art. According to directions laid down by the church, every picture must represent some teaching of the church. No picture must have the warmth of human feeling, but must be stiff and rigid. The background of a picture must be a plain color or gold.

Giotto's teacher did not want to cling to this old way of painting. He studied the art of the Greeks and Romans and wanted to make his pictures more lifelike. Giotto caught the spirit of his teacher and went so far beyond him that we call Giotto the first artist of the Renaissance.

Instead of gold backgrounds, Giotto painted scenery. He painted his figures in natural positions. He tried to have his characters look real and express feeling. While most of his pictures were religious, Giotto tried to tell other stories, too, in his pictures. "He took nature for his teacher," said one of the great masters. Some of Giotto's most famous pictures are those of Francis of Assisi, the monk who, like the artist, loved nature and people.

The Renaissance in Art Started in Italy

Many great artists followed Giotto and improved upon his methods. They learned new ideas about painting. They studied the art of the ancient Greeks and Romans. They dug beneath hills and mounds to discover old temples, statues, vases, and houses. They were anxious to learn from the ancient artists, but

As a shepherd boy, Giotto made pictures on the rocks in the Italian hills.



they were not satisfied to copy them. These followers of the new art wanted to learn new ways of creating beauty.

Florence, Rome, Venice, Milan, and Perugia (pă·rōō'jä) became centers of the new art. Their wealthy citizens became patrons of the arts and poured out their riches to help artists. The monastery of San Marco in Florence was made into a museum of statuary, vases, and bas-reliefs made by the ancients. There was also a school for artists in that lovely city. The people of Florence wanted their city to rival ancient Athens in beauty. They encouraged the building of beautiful palaces, churches, government buildings, and bridges. With their help, Florence did become one of the most beautiful cities of the world.

The artists of Italy used many different materials to express their new ideas. They used different kinds of paint; they painted on canvas and on plaster; they used bronze, marble, stone, porcelain, and wood. Many of them could paint and carve and build with equal skill. Whatever tool they used, whether it was the painter's brush, the sculptor's chisel, or the architect's rule, they made something beautiful.



Florence is a city of beautiful bridges.

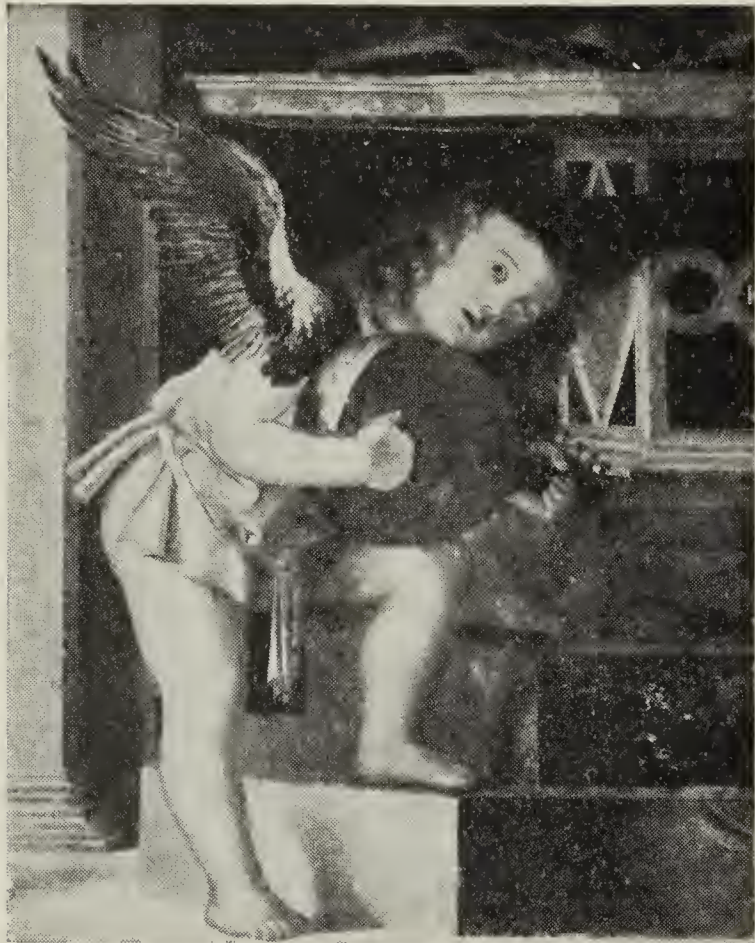
The New Art Crossed the Alps

The art of the Renaissance traveled slowly across the Alps. Rich citizens of the free cities of the north began to invest their wealth in decorations for their churches and their homes. Kings and wealthy townsmen employed architects and artists from Italy to build and decorate and paint. They sent artists to Italy

to study. When the artists north of the Alps began to study the new art, they added many new ideas to those of the Italian artists.

New Ideas for Pictures, Sculpture, and Architecture

The artists of the Renaissance painted people to scale and made them look real. They placed their people in natural



How did the art of painting improve?

surroundings with furniture and scenery. They understood, also, *perspective*, that is, to show the exact shape and position of objects and people in a picture. They learned to use beautiful colors and how to preserve them. Many artists still chose religious subjects for their pictures. Many others, however, especially across the Alps, painted everyday things, group pictures of guilds and families, portraits, and landscapes.

In the Renaissance, sculptors learned many ideas from the ancients. They learned to turn blocks of marble into lifelike people, ani-

mals, and flowers. They learned to decorate buildings with exquisite bas-reliefs. They also learned how to mold bronze into doors and trimmings for buildings and into statues. The Italian sculptors surpassed all the others of Western Europe in their work with bronze and with their statuary. The sculptors beyond the Alps, however, learned to decorate buildings with delicate patterns in wood, stone, and plaster.

With strong kings in power who had large armies, the kind of buildings erected in the Middle Ages were no longer needed. Castles with slits for windows and with moats and drawbridges

and solid round towers became useless. The builders of the Renaissance were called upon to build new buildings that fitted into the changing ways of living. They remodeled castles and built new palaces. They built town halls and other government buildings, town houses and country homes, libraries, hospitals, and churches.

The builders of the Renaissance learned to decorate their buildings in interesting ways. It was then that steep roofs and gables with dormer windows appeared in France and among the Germans. Beautiful staircases, plaster ceilings, and oak paneling appeared in England. Ornamental mouldings were used in many places, designed like ribbons, scrolls, and festoons. Larger windows appeared, tile roofs, and grassy lawns instead of moats. In the south, courtyards appeared, surrounded by porches, their roofs held up by columns and arches.



A piece of church sculpture done in marble. How does a sculptor work?

GREAT ARTISTS OF THE RENAISSANCE

Ghirlandaio (gēr·län·dä'yō), an Italian artist of the Renaissance, made some doors for the Baptistry in Florence. They are so beautiful that one great master said they were "fit for the doorway of heaven." There were many great artists of the Renaissance, like Ghirlandaio, who made many beautiful things on canvas, in stone, and gold and bronze.

There was Anthony Van Dyke, the great portrait painter of Flanders. There was Claude de Lorraine, the French artist who was a fine painter of landscapes. Dürer, a German artist,

became one of the greatest engravers in copper and wood that ever lived. It would take many books to tell the stories of all the artists of the Renaissance. Here are stories of only a few of them.



The "Mona Lisa" by Leonardo da Vinci. Why is it very famous?

Leonardo da Vinci

Leonardo da Vinci (lā'ō·när'dō dä vën'chē) lived a many-sided life. He was a musician, a poet, a singer. He was an engineer, a philosopher, a scientist, and loved to study trees, flowers, birds, and people. He liked to experiment, and he kept careful notes on all his experiments. He experimented with many things, from colors to a flying machine. His experiments helped other artists. Leonardo is the best example of the artist who excelled in many kinds of art. He was a great painter, a sculptor, and an architect. Leonardo was interested in many things and had

many important ideas about art and science.

Leonardo painted a picture of a woman called "Mona Lisa" (mō'nà·lē'za). This picture hangs today in the Louvre, a great museum of Paris. Thousands of people go to see it. As they stand before the woman they expect her quiet lips to break out into a smile.

Not much of the original color is left to the picture of "The Last Supper" which Leonardo painted on the walls of a church in Milan. Even now, however, after much of the color has faded, it is still a very great work of art.

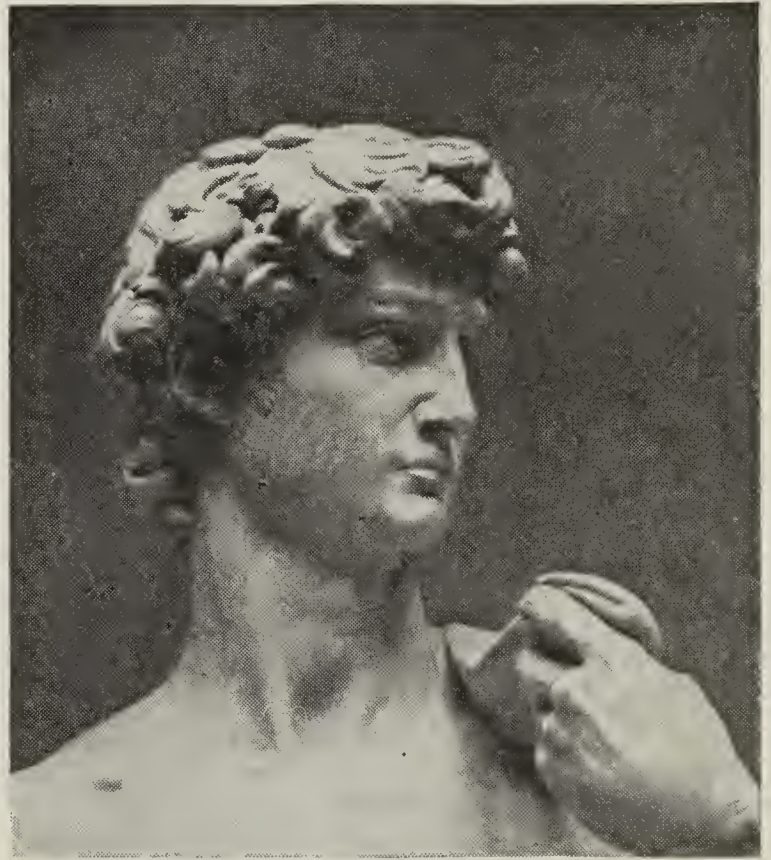
Michelangelo

Michelangelo (mī'kĕl·ăn'jĕ·lō) lived from 1403–1492. He started his training early. When he was fourteen years old he was sent to Florence to study with the great artist Ghirlandaio. Although he liked to paint, he longed also to have a chance to work with marble and the sculptor's chisel.

Michelangelo did become a great sculptor. One of the finest statues he made was carved from a block of marble standing in a city square. Another sculptor had started to work on it but thought it was too long and narrow to be good for a statue. Michelangelo got permission to work on the block. After three long years of hard work, he surprised everyone in Florence with a gigantic statue of David about to kill the giant, Goliath.

Michelangelo painted some of the most interesting pictures ever made. When he was painting the vaulted ceiling of the Sistine Chapel in Rome, he had to lie on his back on a scaffold. Close to the ceiling the people in the picture look large, but from the floor of the Chapel they seem very natural. It took a great master to plan such a picture.

Michelangelo knew how to build, too. One of his greatest achievements in architecture is the dome of the Cathedral of St. Peter at Rome. The great dome is so light that it seems to float like a beautiful bubble over the city and surrounding countryside, yet it is solemn and majestic also. It is the most beautiful part of the Cathedral.



The head of the statue, "David."

Rembrandt

Rembrandt, a Dutch artist, was born in 1606 in Leyden, Holland. He went to Amsterdam to study and lived there the rest of his life. His studio was filled constantly with artists try-

ing to learn from him and with customers who were eager to buy his pictures. People found in Rembrandt's pictures something that was his very own—different from any other artist's.



For what are Rembrandt's paintings famous? This is thought to be a painting of Rembrandt's son.

Rembrandt was a master of the use of light and shadows. He brought out the center of his pictures by brightness and light and surrounded it with transparent shadows. Rembrandt was also one of the greatest etchers the world has ever known. Rembrandt's pictures and etchings are so fine that he is ranked with the great Michelangelo as an artist. He painted religious pictures, portraits, scenes

from everyday life, and nature pictures. All of these he could do well.

THE ARTISTS OF BRITAIN

Just as it took time for the new ideas in art to cross the Alps, so it took time for them to cross the English Channel. Finally, English builders did begin to erect buildings in the new style. One great English architect was Christopher Wren. When the Great Fire of London destroyed many homes, government buildings, and churches, Wren was called to London to help rebuild it. Wren designed many buildings now standing in London.

Wren's most famous church is the Cathedral of St. Paul in London. St. Paul's is built of stone in the shape of a cross. It is 500 feet long and almost 300 feet wide. The porch, or *portico* (pōr'tī·kō), contains twelve Corinthian columns, on top of which are eight more columns, which are topped by a pediment. The portico is held up by eight arches. On each side of the portico there is a tower. The base of each tower is square, but it grows round and slender toward the top. Wren is famous for his towers. On top of the dome there is a huge ball and a cross. The top of the cross is 404 feet from the ground. Some of our churches in America are copies of Wren churches.

The Renaissance in painting was also slow in coming to Great Britain. When kings began to want pictures they sent across the English Channel for artists. Finally, the British themselves began to paint. They learned from Claude de Lorraine, from Van Dyck, and from Holbein (hōl'bīn), a German artist who lived in England a long time. Naturally, with such teachers, they painted pictures of everyday life, portraits, and landscapes.

The British developed a number of very fine portrait painters. Among the best are Sir Joshua Reynolds, Thomas Gainsborough, and Sir Henry Raeburn (rā'bērn), a Scotsman. The English portrait painters learned so well to paint very small portraits, called miniatures, that no one has excelled them. When photography was invented, miniatures were no longer popular.



Thomas Gainsborough painted this picture of his two young daughters. What did English portrait painters learn to do very well?

William Hogarth (hō'gärth) is famous for his paintings of scenes from the everyday life of the people.

CHANGES IN MUSIC

Interesting changes were made in music during the Renaissance. Songs called *madrigals* (măd'rě·gäls) were composed.



St. Clement Danes Church in London, designed by Sir Christopher Wrenn.

They are the ancestors of our popular songs. Hymns called chorales were composed, and the first hymnbooks were published. People learned to compose music dramas called oratorios to be sung in churches. The Italians wanted to have music dramas like the Greeks, so they learned to write the first operas.

Until the Renaissance, no special music was written for instruments. Instrument players used the same notes that the people sang, and all instruments played the same music, whether it sounded well or not. During the Renaissance, composers learned that the sounds which

instruments make can be used to express feelings of different kinds. Then they began to compose music for instruments. This led to instrumental solos, accompaniments for solo voices and choruses, music for oratorios and operas, and finally to the modern symphony.

The Violin Was Created

The troubadour of the Middle Ages played the accompaniments for his songs on a viol (vī'ül). Later, there were several kinds of viols made to sound like the human voice, the tenor,

the base, the alto, the soprano, and so on. In England many a family had a "chest of viols," which they brought out when they wanted to have an evening of music. As years went by, improvements were made in the size, shape, and tone of the viols. Finally, during the Renaissance, someone created the most important of the stringed instruments, the violin. Two Italian towns became famous for their violins, Brescia (brā'shā) and Cremona (crē·mō'nā). It was at Cremona that the famous violin-maker, Stradivarius (strād·ĩ·vār'ĩ·ūs), lived and worked. The older a violin is the sweeter its tone is. Violins made by Stradivarius are very precious today.

Great Composers of the Renaissance

Almost every country of western Europe had great composers and musicians during the Renaissance. Two Italian composers stand out among the greatest. They are Palestrina (pā'lās·trē'nā) and Monteverde (mōn'tā·vār'-dā). Palestrina wrote church music which was so beautiful that one of his pieces was used as a model for all other composers of church music. Even today, Palestrina's music is looked upon as a model of beauty and good workmanship. When Palestrina died, he was buried in St. Peter's Cathedral at Rome. On his tomb are carved in Latin the words, "Prince of Music."

Monteverde was born in 1567 in the little town of Cremona, famous for violinmakers. He was a great experimenter in music, and his experiments helped the composers of his day and those who came after him. Monteverde succeeded in putting into the



Stradivarius in his shop in Cremona.

language of music the feelings and ideals of people. He wrote music "for the heart." He composed madrigals. He was the first to write music for one voice, the *melody*. He wrote good operas, and in working on them he learned a great deal about the sounds of instruments. His experiments with instrumental music

helped the later writers of symphonies. Monteverde became a Chapel Master of St. Mark's in Italy. There he composed music for the church and created the first *cantata*, which is a group of songs and choruses planned around one idea.

There were many changes in art during the Renaissance. Artists painted pictures, architects erected buildings, sculptors carved in stone and wood and marble, and composers wrote music. They created new beauty which has made life richer for all the world.



One panel from beautiful bronze doors on a church in Florence.

THINGS TO DO

I. QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS.

1. Why is Giotto called the first artist of the Renaissance?
2. How do pictures painted by Renaissance artists differ from those painted in the early Middle Ages?
3. How did new ways of living at the end of the Middle Ages change the architecture of Europe?
4. What new ideas did Renaissance architects use in building? How do Renaissance buildings compare with Greek and Roman buildings?
5. To what country did the following belong: Ghir-

landaio, Claude de Lorraine, Michelangelo, Dürer, Rembrandt, Sir Joshua Reynolds, Christopher Wren? For what is each famous?

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6. For what are Palestrina and Monteverde famous?

II. NEW WORDS.

<i>patron</i>	<i>bas-relief</i>	<i>oratorios</i>
<i>perspective</i>	<i>cornice</i>	<i>viols</i>
<i>etching</i>	<i>chorales</i>	<i>cantata</i>
<i>portico</i>	<i>hymnals</i>	<i>opera</i>
<i>pediment</i>	<i>madrigals</i>	<i>symphony</i>

III. A VISIT TO THE MUSEUM. If there is a museum or art gallery near your school arrange a visit to see the famous paintings of the artists of the Renaissance.

IV. AN EXHIBIT. Try to get copies of some of the works of art done by artists of the Renaissance. Have an exhibit of the pictures you collect.

V. MAKE MUSIC IN YOUR CLASSROOM. Arrange a program to tell about the music makers of the Renaissance. Collect phonograph records of some of the church music of that period. Have the class learn one of the hymns.

VI. THE VIOLIN TELLS A STORY. Pretend that you are a violin made by the great Stradivarius. Write a story of how you came to be made, who has played you and where you have traveled all these years.

VII. FOR YOUR CLASS MUSEUM. From hard white soap carve models of the famous pieces of sculpture made during the Renaissance.



Chapter 25

Religion

During the Renaissance

In Chapter 17 we saw how Christianity became very important in all of Europe. In Eastern Europe most of the people belonged to the Orthodox, or Eastern Church. In Western Europe almost all the people belonged to the Catholic Church. As the years of the Middle Ages went on, the Pope, the head of the Catholic Church, became one of the most important and powerful persons in Western Europe.

Sometimes strong kings did not like to see the Pope having so much power. They were envious of the lands the Catholic Church held. Northern Europe was far from Rome, where the Pope lived. Rulers and many of the people far from Rome thought that too much of their wealth was sent to Rome. Most of the people in their villages knew little about the disagreements between Pope and kings. To their priest in the village church they looked for comfort and guidance. From childhood to old age he explained to them the teachings of Christianity and taught them how they should live with their fellowmen. They did not know that there were some people who did not think that the rulers of the church always acted wisely.



THE RISE OF PROTESTANTISM

Even though the Catholic Church was so powerful and important in Western Europe, there were sincere members who dared to criticize some of the things the clergy of the church did. St. Francis of Assisi was among those who thought that Christians needed to return to the simpler ways of the early days of Christianity. High-minded popes worked often to improve conditions in the church, but because the Catholic Church was so large, it was not an easy matter to bring about needed changes.

In England, John Wyclif, a priest and professor at the University of Oxford, taught that a Christian should be guided entirely by what he read in the Bible. He translated the Bible into English so that the people of England could more easily read it. Men like Wyclif had no intention of leaving the Catholic Church, even though they did not agree with all its teachings.

In Bohemia, a priest and professor in the University of Prague, John Huss, spread the teachings of Wyclif. For his beliefs and teachings, the emperor ordered Huss burned at the stake. After his death some of Huss's followers set up their own church. Today in Pennsylvania and other parts of the United States there are churches of the Moravian Brethren. These churches trace their history back to the days of John Huss.

Martin Luther Started the Lutheran Church

About a hundred years after the death of John Huss came the first large break with the Catholic Church. It was started by Martin Luther, a devout German monk and professor at the University of Wittenberg. Martin Luther was born in 1483. His parents were free peasants, and his father was a miner.

Luther was poor, but he had a very good education. His father wanted Martin to become a lawyer and was greatly disappointed when his son suddenly decided to become a monk.

Luther took his duties very seriously. He became a professor of theology at the University of Wittenberg.

Along with other thoughtful persons, Martin Luther was troubled by some of the things certain monks and priests said and did. He was very much bothered by the actions of a monk named Tetzel (tet'sēl). Tetzel came to Germany to raise money to help rebuild St. Peter's Cathedral in Rome. Pope Leo X planned to make the cathedral in Rome one of the most beautiful churches in all Christendom, as was befitting the cathedral of the Pope. Of course he expected all the people to help meet the tremendous expense of erecting such a cathedral.

To help raise money for St. Peter's, the talkative, businesslike Tetzel was going about selling "indulgences." He led some of the people to believe that an indulgence was a promise of forgiveness for sins. The idea that one could buy forgiveness by paying money seemed wrong to many people.

Martin Luther's theses were printed and sent about for many people to read.



Martin Luther was so concerned about the selling of indulgences that he posted on the church door at Wittenberg a series of ninety-five statements against the practice of selling indulgences. It was the custom of the day for scholars and students to post statements, or theses, about which they wished to debate with other scholars. Luther was willing to debate the ninety-five theses that he posted on the church door.

Luther probably did not at first intend to break with the Catholic Church, but he said that he would not be guided by the Pope and the Catholic Church in his beliefs. Instead, he would be guided by what he read in the Bible and by his own conscience. Only a very brave man would have taken such a stand at the end of the Middle Ages.

There were so many people who agreed with Luther that he became the leader of the Protestants, as the people who “protested” against some of the teachings and practices of the Catholic Church, came to be called. The name “Protestant” is not exactly correct, for the Protestants did more than protest. They broke away from the Catholic Church.

The emperor outlawed Luther. Friends of Luther, fearing that he might be harmed, hid him in the castle at Wartburg. While Luther was thus “imprisoned” by friends, he began the translation of the Bible into German. Now all the Germans could understand the Bible when it was read aloud, and some could even read it for themselves. By translating the Bible into German Luther did for the German language what Chaucer and Wyclif did for the English language and Cervantes did for the Spanish language.

Martin Luther did something else for the Protestants. He wanted his congregation to have a real part in the church service. He decided this part should be singing. “I wish to make sacred hymns for the people,” he said, “so that the word of God may dwell among the people by means of song.” He composed simple, four-part music and set words to it. These



hymns are called chorales. Perhaps the best known chorale is one that Luther composed, “A Mighty Fortress Is Our God.”

As a result of Luther’s break with the Catholic Church, most of northern Germany, all of Scandinavia, and some of the lands along the eastern shore of the Baltic Sea became Protestant. They largely followed the teachings of Luther, which is why their churches are called Lutheran. At about the same time, other parts of Europe also became Protestant, but they did not set up Lutheran churches. Instead, other Protestant churches were started. In France the people who broke away from the Catholic Church were called Huguenots (hū’gê·nōts). Often they were very much persecuted for their beliefs. Many fled to neighboring countries. Later on, other Huguenots made the long voyage across the Atlantic Ocean to America.

How John Calvin Started Presbyterian Churches

Among the French Protestants who fled from France was John Calvin. He settled in Geneva, Switzerland, where for many years he preached and wrote about his beliefs. Like

Luther, he said he would depend on the Bible for his religious ideas. The church he set up was ruled by elders, or presbyters, and so received the name Presbyterian. People also refer to his teachings as Calvinism.

Calvin was a stern religious leader. He really made himself the ruler of Geneva and punished severely those who did not agree with his views. More than fifty persons were executed in the little city of Geneva and still more were banished from the city.



John Calvin was a Protestant leader.

Calvin was a very powerful religious thinker. His views spread far in Europe and later came to America and other parts of the world.

In Geneva a Scotch reformer named John Knox became acquainted with Calvin and followed his teachings about Christianity. He returned to Scotland and became the leader of the Protestant nobles who broke away from the Catholic Church. The Calvinists of Scotland were called Presbyterians. Later many Scotch Presbyterians moved to northern Ireland, but the larger part of Ireland remained Catholic.

The Church of England

In England, the powerful Tudor king, Henry VIII, had an eye on the rich properties of the Catholic Church. He persuaded Parliament to make him “supreme head of the Church of Eng-

At Geneva, Switzerland, is the Reformation Monument, in honor of the leaders of the Protestant Reformation. What do the letters above this section of the monument mean?



land.” Many Catholics who refused to follow their king in his break with the Catholic Church were persecuted. Henry VIII’s son made some changes in the services and beliefs of the Church of England. His daughter, Queen Elizabeth, made still more changes. English, and not Latin, became the language of the Church of England.

There were people in England who thought that the Church of England did not make enough changes. They thought the Church of England needed to be “purified,” which explains how they came to be called Puritans. Sometimes the Church of England persecuted the Puritans, just as it did the Catholics who refused to leave the church of their forefathers.

REFORMS IN THE CATHOLIC CHURCH

While Protestantism was spreading in Germany, Scandinavia, Holland, Britain, and other parts of northern Europe, most of the people in Spain, Italy, Austria, southern Germany, and France stayed loyal to the Catholic Church. The popes made improvements in the government of the church and in the way it raised the money it needed. Popes, bishops, priests, monks, and abbots were more carefully selected than had sometimes been the case.

Ignatius Loyola

In Spain there was a man who was very much concerned about the divisions that were happening in the Christian church. His name was Ignatius Loyola (ĭg·nā’shĭ·ŭs lö·yō’lä). Ignatius Loyola was born in 1491 at the castle of Loyola in Spain. As a small boy he served as a page at the court of King Ferdinand and Queen Isabella. When he grew up, he became a gay and fun-loving, but courageous, soldier. During a battle he was badly wounded.

While in a hospital recovering from his wound, Ignatius Loyola had much time to read and to think. He happened to

read a life of Christ and stories of some of the saints of the Catholic Church. Loyola decided that when he became well he would cease being a soldier of an earthly king. Instead he would become a knight of Christ and the Catholic Church.

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The Jesuits

Ignatius Loyola went to Rome and finally succeeded in persuading the Pope to let him found an order that would serve the Pope and the Church well and faithfully. This new order came to be known as the Society of Jesus, and its members were called Jesuits. The Jesuits hoped to keep the rulers and leaders of the nations faithful to the Catholic Church.

The Jesuits founded many schools and colleges in Europe. Their schools were considered among the best in all Europe. When Jesuit missionaries went to far-off lands, they founded schools and colleges in those lands, too. In Europe the untiring Jesuits succeeded in regaining parts of Germany for the Catholic Church. When the Europeans found out more and more about India and China and the Americas, Jesuit missionaries carried the teachings of the Catholic Church to many people in those lands.



A Jesuit missionary preaching on the streets of Poland.

WARS OF RELIGION

Some of the saddest pages in the history of Western Europe came as a result of the division of the Christian church. Protestants persecuted Catholics and Catholics persecuted Protestants. Kings often claimed that the subjects must believe in the same

church that they believed in. So, every time a new king came to the throne, the people of the nation who did not accept his church were persecuted. The rulers of Europe fought many wars because of religion. Many Europeans came to America because of the religious persecutions and wars in Europe. Protestants who were called Pilgrims and Puritans came to New England. Catholics came to Maryland. Happily, going to war over differences in religious beliefs at last came to an end in Europe.

The Idea of Religious Freedom

We who live today inherit our religious ideas from many places and many times. In our country there are many millions of people who follow the teachings of Christianity. Millions are Catholics; thousands belong to the Eastern churches; and many millions belong to the Protestant churches that started in Europe in the days of Luther, Calvin, Knox, and other religious leaders. In our country are also many Jewish people whose religious ideas go back to the days of the ancient Hebrews. There are also small groups of people in our country who are Moham-medans, Buddhists, Hindus, or followers of some other religion.

It took the world a long time to learn that a nation can be strong and united, even though its citizens belong to many different religious faiths. We think that everyone should be allowed to worship God as his conscience directs, and that each should respect the beliefs of others.

THINGS TO DO

I. QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS.

1. What did strong kings in Europe think of the growing power of the Pope?
2. Who were some of the people that criticized the church?
3. Why did Martin Luther post his "theses?"

4. How did the Protestants get their name? Does it fit them?
5. What two special things did Luther do for the Protestant people of Germany?
6. Where did the Protestant church spread during the Renaissance? What are the names of some of the first Protestant churches?
7. Who helped to bring about reforms in the Roman Catholic Church during the Renaissance? What religious order did he found?
8. What do we mean by religious freedom?

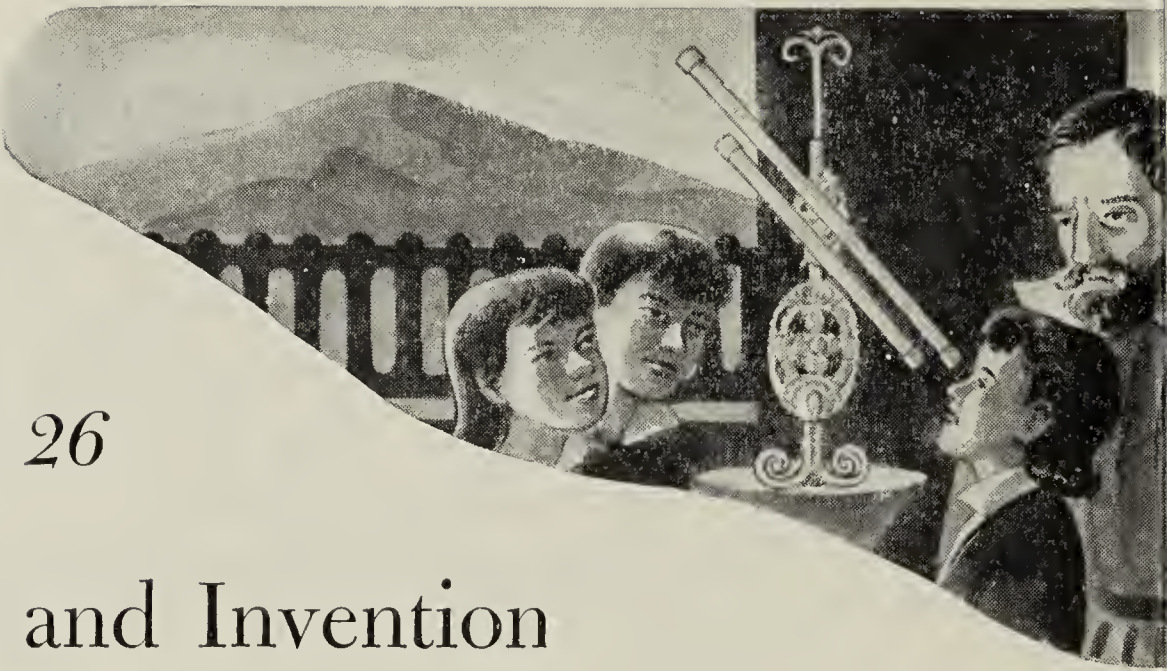
II. NEW WORDS.

<i>indulgences</i>	<i>Lutherans</i>	<i>Pilgrims</i>
<i>theses</i>	<i>Huguenots</i>	<i>Puritans</i>
<i>excommunicated</i>	<i>Calvinism</i>	<i>Jesuits</i>
<i>Protestants</i>	<i>Presbyterian</i>	

III. WHO'S WHO. Make a Who's Who list to help you remember the important men in religion during the Renaissance. Beside each name write where the man lived and what religious movement he started.

IV. ONE GOD. The book *One God, the Ways We Worship Him* by Florence Mary Fitch tells the story of three great religions of America today. All of you will find this interesting to read and discuss.

V. RELIGIOUS FREEDOM. Discuss with your teacher and classmates what is meant by *religious freedom*. Do all countries have freedom to worship God as each person wishes? How do we happen to have freedom of religion? How can we keep religious freedom? Would you want to live in a country where you were told how you could or could not worship God? Why? Why not?



Chapter 26

Science and Invention

Besides changes in language and literature, in art, and in religion, there were inventions and ideas which changed men's ways of thinking and of doing things late in the Middle Ages and in the Renaissance. We have seen how the Crusaders returned with new things and ideas when they came home to their castles and manor villages. The Europeans, however, did not have to depend on others for all their improvements. They themselves began to invent some useful things.

SOME IMPORTANT INVENTIONS

Late in the Middle Ages there appeared such things as chimney flues, lead plumbing, and glass windows in the homes of the well-to-do. On the doors of some of the castles there were intricate mechanical locks. In the tower of many a church or town hall there appeared something still more amazing—a mechanical clock. Many of the clocks had chimes which rang out the hours for all the community to hear. Never before had such wonderful timepieces been made.

Roger Bacon's Dream

monk and professor at Oxford University who foresaw what things men might invent if they would learn to observe and to experiment. For the most part during the Middle Ages men's ideas about science were those they found in the writings of Aristotle and other scientists of Ancient Times. They did very little experimenting to check on those ideas or to gain new knowledge. Roger Bacon became so impatient with the slavish following of Aristotle that he wrote, "If I had my way, I should burn all the books of Aristotle, for the study of them can only lead to a loss of time, produce error, and increase ignorance."



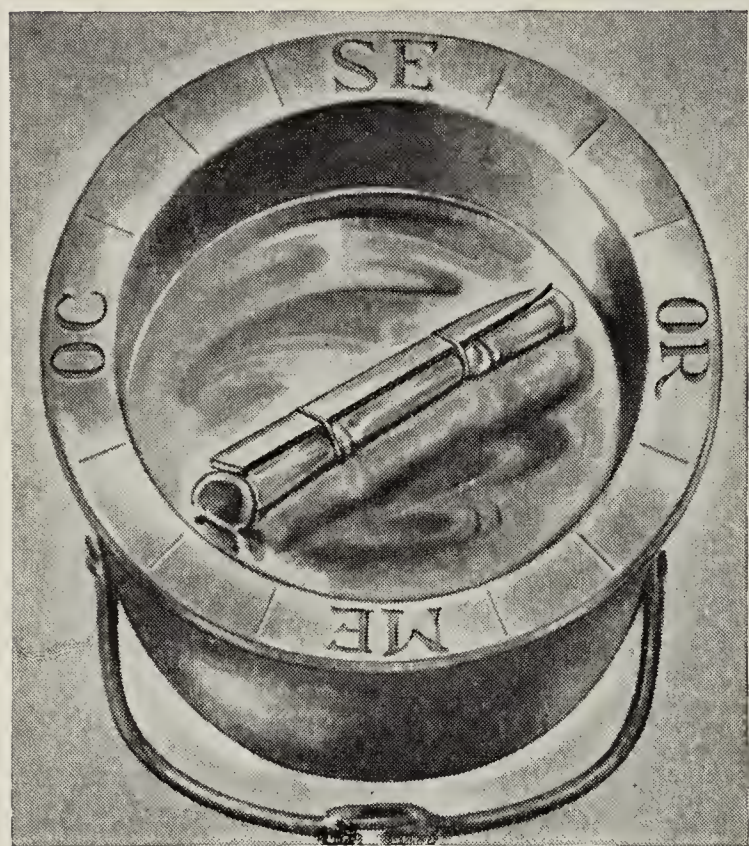
Roger Bacon believed in trying.

Then this man, who sounded more like the twentieth century than the thirteenth, wrote: "Machines for navigating are possible without rowers, so that great ships suited to river or ocean, guided by one man, may be borne with greater speed than if they were full of men. Likewise cars may be made so that without a draught animal they may be moved. . . . And flying machines are possible, so that a man may sit in the middle turning some device by which artificial wings may beat the air in the manner of a flying bird."

The Compass

From the Arabs the people of Europe learned of two devices which would help them travel far from the shores of Europe. The Greeks had invented an instrument called an astrolabe. By looking at the sun or stars and with the help of the astrolabe, sailors could find their position at sea. The Arabs improved the astrolabe of the Greeks and used it in their travels.

The Arabs probably had found out about the compass from the Chinese. When the Crusaders saw the “House of the Magic



The needle of this very old compass floated in water.

Needle,” as they called the compass, they were afraid of it, for they thought it was bewitched. They did not remain afraid of the compass long, however, for we know that Europeans were using it by the twelfth century.

By the next century, European mariners had learned of the variation of the compass from the true north. In the fourteenth century Chaucer wrote an explanation of the compass and told of the division of the compass-card into thirty-two points. With the help of the astrolabe and the compass,

European sea captains soon found out some astonishing things about the world.

Gunpowder

Gunpowder was an invention of the late Middle Ages which also changed men’s ways of living. Very likely gunpowder was invented at different times in different parts of the world. The Chinese knew about the use of gunpowder and very likely the Arabs found out about it from them. Roger Bacon, who experimented so much that he frightened people during the thirteenth century, said that anyone who wanted to make a big flash and a great noise could do so by mixing saltpeter, sulphur, and charcoal in right proportions and touching fire to it. “Truly,” he wrote, “I am not joking.”

When people understood the use of gunpowder, the days of large stone castles and knights in heavy armor were almost

over. Some clever fighter thought of using a hollow metal tube through which to fire rocks at his enemy. Iron cannon balls soon took the place of rocks. Late in the Middle Ages fighters also invented hand-guns or muskets. What use then was the knight with all his shining armor, when even the poorest serf with a gun could fight better? Gunpowder helped to bring an end to the long period of feudalism.

A NEW IDEA ABOUT THE EARTH

To the uneducated people of the Middle Ages, the earth was flat, because that was the way it looked. For a long time, however, educated men and women had known that the world was round. They believed with the ancient Hellenistic geographers, that the earth was the center of the universe. They thought the sun and moon and stars revolved around it. It was at the end of the Middle Ages, when the spirit of the Renaissance was in the air, that Copernicus (kō·pûr'nĭ·kŭs), a Polish scientist, came to the conclusion that the Hellenistic theory of the universe was false.

Copernicus

Copernicus was born at Thorn (törn), Poland, in 1473. After completing the work offered in the schools at Thorn, he went to Cracow (krā'kō) where he entered the university. At the University of Cracow he studied theology, medicine, mathematics, and astronomy. He enjoyed astronomy more than any of his other subjects. From Cracow he went to Bologna (bō·lō'-nyä), Italy, to study more of his favorite subject.

The longer Copernicus studied the movements of the heavenly bodies, the more he became convinced that the sun was the center of the universe and that the earth was a planet like Mars and Venus and that all the planets revolved around the sun. He was able to figure out just about how long it took each



planet to make this journey. He claimed that it took Mercury eighty-seven days, Venus two hundred twenty-four days, Mars six hundred and eighty-six days, Jupiter eleven years, Saturn twenty-nine years, and the earth three hundred sixty-five days.

When Copernicus became convinced that he was right, he decided to write a book explaining his new idea about the earth so that others might study and understand his theory. Copernicus dedicated his book to Pope Paul III. The Pope could not believe Copernicus's idea and would not give him permission to have the manuscript printed. Copernicus, however, sent his manuscript to a printer in Nuremburg. Just before he died in 1543, a printed copy of his book reached him. Many years passed before scholars and churchmen believed that Copernicus's idea was correct.

What did Copernicus believe about the earth and the sun? What instruments did he use?





Many people came to look through Galileo's wonderful telescope.

Galileo

About twenty years after the death of Copernicus, there was born in Pisa, Italy, the man who would some day find out still more about the universe. His name was Galileo (găl'ĩ·lē'ō). Galileo's parents sent him to a monastery near Florence where he studied Greek, Latin, logic, and the science of that day. He did not like his science lessons, but when he grew up he became a very great scientist.

Galileo became a famous professor at the University of Padua (păd'ũ·ă). There he taught the ideas that Copernicus had written about the universe. The students found his lectures so interesting that the university had to find a hall large enough to seat 2000 listeners.

One day Galileo heard that a spectacle-maker in Holland had made an instrument which made distant objects look nearer.

Such an instrument was just the thing he needed to study the heavenly bodies. Galileo immediately set to work to make a telescope of his own. Galileo took his telescope to Venice. People were so interested in his invention that he wrote: "Many noblemen and senators, though of advanced age, mounted to the top of one of the highest towers to watch the ships, which were visible through my glass two hours before they were seen entering the harbor, for it makes a thing fifty miles off as near and clear as if it were only five."

Galileo continued to improve the telescope. He finally made one by which things seemed thirty-two times nearer. It was a very feeble instrument compared with the telescopes astronomers use today, but for its time it was a great marvel. With his telescope Galileo discovered new bodies in the heavens. He saw spots on the sun. He was more convinced than ever that the planets and stars move around the sun.

Aristotle had taught that a body weighing a hundred pounds would fall one hundred times as fast as a body weighing one pound. Galileo made some experiments to test Aristotle's theory. He climbed the leaning tower of Pisa and from it dropped objects of different weights. His records showed that distance determined how fast the objects fell, and not their weight. So he corrected Aristotle's false teaching. Galileo also watched a swinging lamp in the cathedral of Pisa so carefully that he was able to work out the mathematics of the pendulum.

Many of the university professors of his day disagreed with Galileo's teaching about the universe. The church thought his teaching was contrary to the Bible and forbade him to teach his theories to students. Galileo obeyed the church but quietly went on making observations and experiments.

After his death almost all men of learning came to agree with Galileo's ideas. More important than the actual discoveries he made was the careful way he observed and experimented and tested ideas. We say Galileo's way of thinking was "scientific."



This way of thinking has led to most of the marvelous scientific discoveries that are so important in our ways of living today.

THE PRINTING PRESS

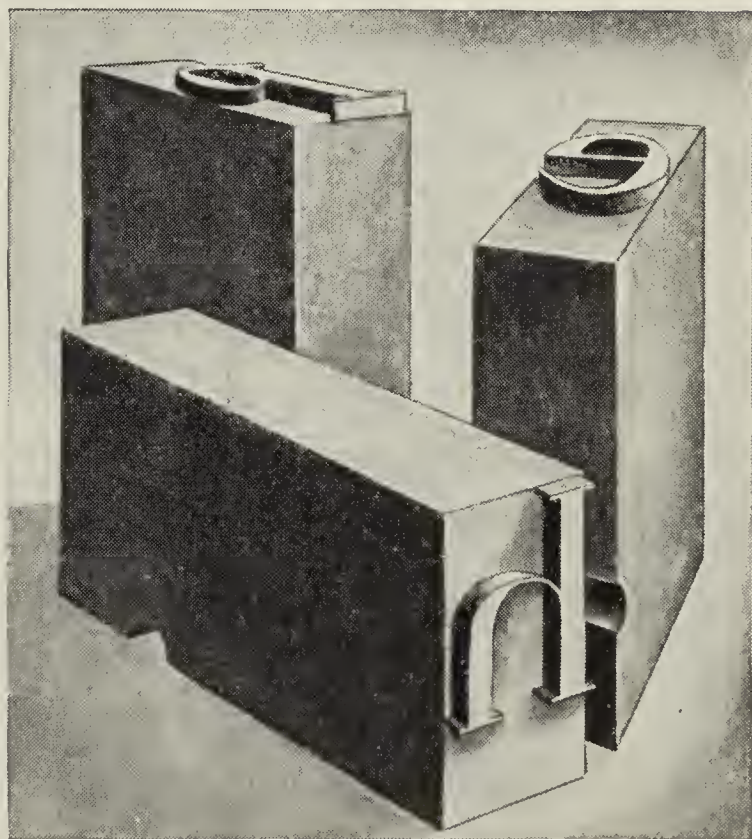
The most important invention of the time of the Renaissance was the printing press. It ranks with the four or five most important inventions in the long history of mankind because of its far-reaching results. We know that the Chinese could print books, paper money, and playing cards several hundred years before Europeans had a printing press.

Until about 1450 in Europe all books had to be copied by hand. A very skillful copier of books could usually copy two good-sized books a year. The parchment on which books were copied was expensive, for it was made of the skins of animals. Only well-to-do people could hope to own a book.

Movable Type

For a long time skilled workers had been able to make “block books.” By carving letters or pictures on a block of wood and smearing the block with ink, the workers could print several pages from a single block.

Between 1440 and 1450 someone thought of cutting up the blocks into single letters and setting them in rows or frames in the order necessary to make words. This invention was important, but movable type of wood was not very satisfactory, for the letters wore out very quickly. Then John Gutenberg (gōō'těn·bĕrk), a printer in Mainz (mĭnts), had a new idea. On bits of metal he engraved



How did movable type make printing easier? What is the type made of?

letters and set them in racks, or frames, in the order necessary to make words.

Paper



Fortunately, long before the invention of the printing press the art of papermaking was known in Europe. In the eighth century the Arabs had learned about paper from the Chinese. Soon the art of making paper was known all over the lands ruled by the Arabs. The Arabs of Damascus made a good paper from cotton. From Damascus this paper went to Greece and southern Italy and into Spain. The Moors in Spain used hemp and flax instead of cotton to make paper. From Spain this excellent paper went to France and other parts of Western Europe. It was just the right kind of paper for printing with movable metal type.

Spread of Printing

The fame of Gutenberg's printing press spread rapidly. In 1458 the king of France sent his "master of the mint" to Mainz to "inform himself secretly of the invention." A few years later there were printing presses in Rome. By 1500 there were printing presses in all the leading cities of Europe.



The first printer in England was William Caxton, who translated a popular French book into English. Caxton wanted several of his friends to have copies of the book. At the end of the book he printed an apology to his friends for printing the book instead of writing it by hand.

At the very end of the apology, we see that Caxton was really very proud of this first book printed in England, for he said, "Therefore I have practised and learned at my great charge and expense to ordain this said book *in print* after the manner and form as you may here see, and it is not written in pen and ink as other books have been. . . . for all the parts of this book *were begun in one day and also finished in one day.*"

The little printing presses of four hundred years ago were very simple compared with the huge and complicated presses that turn out our newspapers, magazines, and books today. But those little presses increased tremendously the number of books and greatly decreased the price. They helped to spread all kinds of knowledge. It is easy to see why the printing press ranks high as one of the achievements which came to us out of the past.

With so many new ideas in literature, art, religion, and in science, it is no wonder that scholars have given the name Renaissance to this time when the ways of living of the Middle Ages slowly changed to those of Modern Times.

THINGS TO DO

I. QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS. Find the answers to these questions in your chapter.

1. What were some interesting inventions which appeared in Western Europe late in the Middle Ages?
2. Who was Roger Bacon? What fault did he find with the men of science in the Middle Ages?
3. How did the astrolabe help mariners? How did it reach Western Europe?
4. What was the "House of the Magic Needle"? Why was it a help to mariners?
5. What inventions helped to destroy feudalism?
6. What ideas did Greek astronomers have about the universe? Who learned the truth about the movement of the earth?
7. For what are we indebted to Galileo?
8. Who invented metal movable type? About when was it invented?
9. Why do we say that the printing press was the most important invention of the Renaissance?

- II. A POSTER OF IMPROVEMENTS. Make a picture poster to show some of the many useful things the Europeans made that improved their ways of living.
- III. TRY YOUR HAND AT PRINTING. Ask your art teacher to help you make a block print. Try cutting letters out of soft wood and setting them in frames for printing words.
- IV. LET'S PRETEND. Divide your class into groups to arrange a program where the following events take place. You will think of other scenes you may want to do.
- Roger Bacon and Aristotle meet
Galileo lectures at the University of Padua
A Hellenistic astronomer and Copernicus meet
A Renaissance sailor explains the use of the compass
- V. INVENTIONS AND IDEAS. Make two lists for your notebook. In one list tell the inventions of the Renaissance that brought about changes in ways of living. In the other list tell the new ideas that were developed by the thinkers of the Renaissance. Beside each item on your list write the changes that the inventions or ideas made.

LET'S REVIEW

- I. COMPLETING THE RECORD. You are ready to complete your notebook record for this unit.
- II. A MATCHING TEST. On a sheet of notebook paper copy the words in Column I. Find the words in Column

II to match the ones in the first column. Put the correct letters beside the words in Column I.

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- | | |
|----------------------|------------------------------------|
| 1. Leonardo da Vinci | a. an English writer |
| 2. Don Quixote | b. improved the telescope |
| 3. John Calvin | c. invented the printing press |
| 4. Ignatius Loyola | d. invented the astrolabe |
| 5. Michelangelo | e. a many-sided man |
| 6. Galileo | f. started the Presbyterian Church |
| 7. Renaissance | g. an amusing story by Cervantes |
| 8. Chaucer | h. planned the dome of St. Peter's |
| 9. John Gutenberg | i. a chorale |
| 10. Dante | j. an Italian writer |
| | k. rebirth of learning |
| | l. founded the Jesuits |

III. NEWS OF THE RENAISSANCE. Write a series of newspaper headlines to tell the events of the Renaissance that seem most important to you.

IV. A QUIZ PROGRAM. Arrange a quiz program about the events of the Renaissance. Each class member will write questions from which the committee will select the best ones to ask the experts.

V. LET'S READ.

All the Ways of Building by Louise Lamprey, The Macmillan Company

How Man Made Music by Fannie R. Buchanan, Follett Publishing Company

Knight of Florence by Margery Evernden, Random House

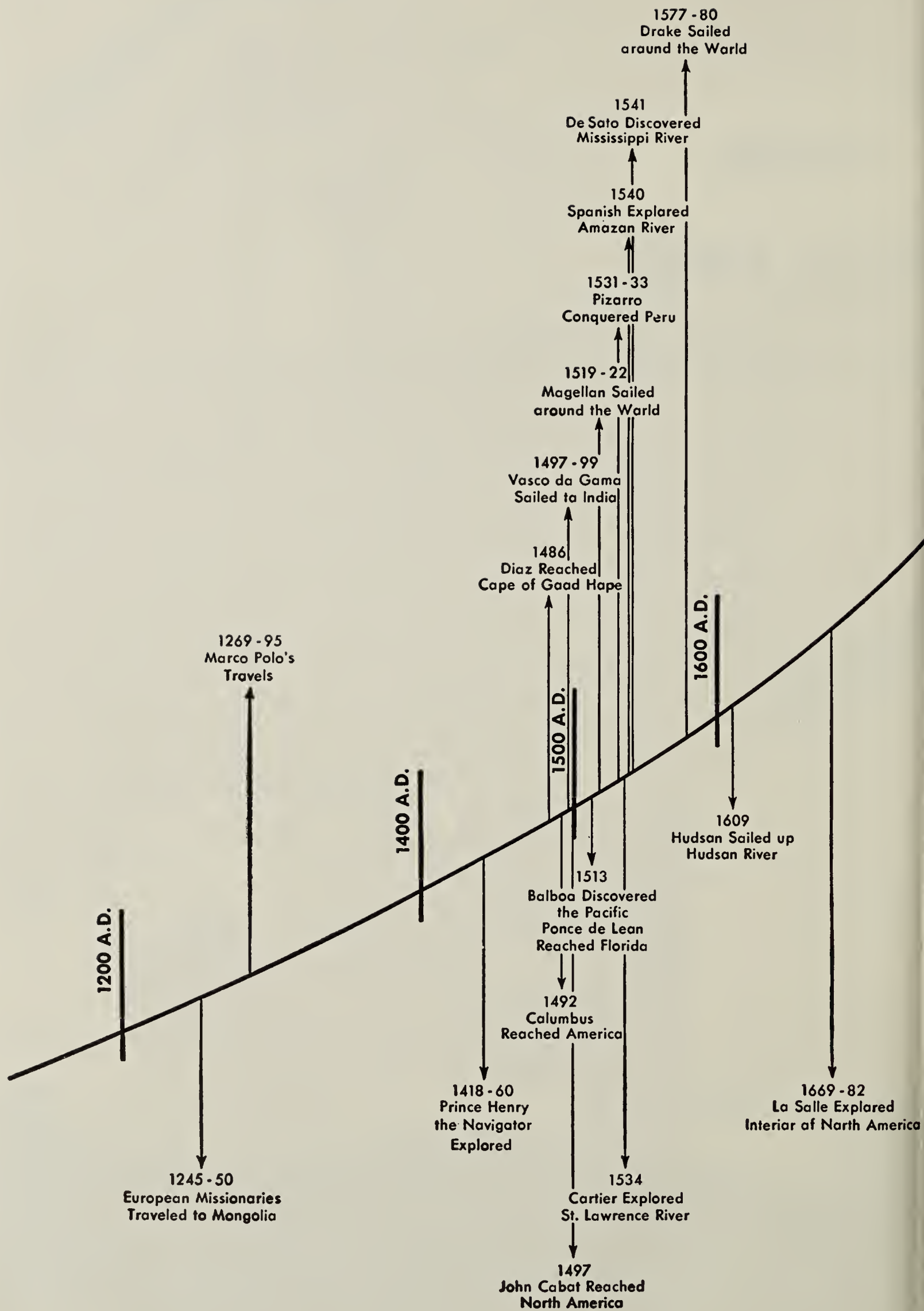
Martin Luther by May McNeer, Abingdon-Cokesbury Press

Unit 8



Finding

New Lands





Chapter 27

How European Explorers Reached India

While the people of Europe were getting new ideas in art and literature and science late in the Middle Ages, their ships were also beginning to sail to almost all the lands of the world. In Ancient Times the lands around the Mediterranean Sea had exchanged goods with China, India, and the Spice Islands, mostly through “go-between” traders. When Arabs spread the Mohammedan religion as far west as Spain and as far east as the Philippine Islands, their traders and settlers went to all these lands. During the Middle Ages the Arabs were the most important “go-betweens” in the trade between Europe and Asia.

While the Arabs busily spread east and west, most of the Europeans stayed at home on their manors. They knew little about the great world beyond their little villages. During the Crusades they began to find out some surprising things about other lands and other people. Then, during the time of the Renaissance, when the Europeans were awakening to so many new ideas, they began to travel far, over almost all of the world. The story of their discoveries is one of the most thrilling that comes to us out of the past.

MISSIONARY VISITS TO MONGOLIA

In the year 1241 there was great alarm in Europe. The fierce, swift Mongols, who had spread over much of Asia, were pounding at the gates of Europe. They had taken Kiev in Russia and had attacked Poland. By 1241 the Mongols had conquered the land from the Persian Gulf to Siberia and from the plains of Hungary to the Pacific Ocean. The khan (kän) of the Mongols ruled the greatest empire that had ever been created under a single ruler. (See the map on page 206.)



The Pope, too, was worried about the Mongols. He wanted to know more about them. He asked a quiet little monk, Friar John de Piano Carpini (cär·pē'nē), to go on a long, dangerous mission to the court of the Khan. Friar John had been a good friend and disciple of the gentle Francis of Assisi. The Pope gave Friar John a polite message to deliver to the Khan. He said he hoped the Mongols might become friends of the people of Europe instead of fighting them.

In April, 1245, Friar John and Friar Stephen of Bohemia started from Lyons (lē'ôn') in France on a trip that was to take them thousands of miles eastward. When they reached Bohemia in central Europe, they talked with King Wenceslaus (wěn'-sēs·lôs), who told them what he knew about the Mongols. He advised them to take Monk Benedict of Poland with them to act as their interpreter.

When the three missionaries reached Kiev, in Russia, Friar Stephen turned back, but the other two men pushed their way eastward. They crossed the Dnieper River and then the Don River. When they reached the Volga River, they came to the Mongol camp of a nephew of the Khan. Friar John kept a careful record of the long trip. He told of the swift horses of the Mongols and of the felt tents, called "yurts," which the Mongols moved from place to place.

For 106 days the two brave, daring monks traveled 3000

miles eastward. They suffered wind and sandstorms and extreme cold and heat as they crossed the great, wide deserts of central Asia. When at last they reached the court of the Khan in far-off Mongolia, they found that the Khan had died. They had the interesting experience of seeing a new khan made ruler of the Mongols. There were 4000 envoys from all over Asia at the ceremony. All brought gifts to the Khan of the Mongols.

After a long time the khan gave his answer to the Pope's message. The letter, which was written in Arabic, Mongol, and Latin, told the Pope that the Khan was the "scourge of God" and "all powerful on earth." The Khan said he would be glad to receive the Pope as the representative of the rulers of Europe and accept tribute from him. "You in person, at the head of kings, all together, without exception, come and offer us service and homage. Then we shall recognize your submission, but if not then we shall know that you are our enemy," wrote the boastful Khan.

At last, in November, the friar and the monk started home. All winter they traveled across the deserts and mountains. In the early summer of 1247 they were back in Kiev. From there they traveled on until they reached the Pope and delivered to him the insulting letter of the Khan. A courageous old friar and a monk had made one of the most amazing trips in the long story of travel.

Just a few months before Friar John died, the King of France decided to send another missionary, Friar William of Rubruck, to the court of the Khan of the Mongols. At times Friar William



Friar John and Monk Benedict.

and his companion crossed the route Friar John had followed, but most of the time they were north and east of it. Friar William left records of his long trip to Mongolia. He told also of lands he heard about beyond Mongolia. In his records he told of “great Cathay” (kǎ·thā’), where there lived a people called the “Seres,” who made beautiful silk cloth.

THE TRAVELS OF MARCO POLO

In the year when Friar William returned from the court of the Khan, there was born in Venice a boy who was one day to reach far-off Cathay. That boy was Marco Polo. Marco Polo’s father and uncle were somewhere east of Constantinople in the year Marco was born. They were trading for the precious spices, jewels, and silks “go-between” traders had brought from the East.

The Polo Brothers Reached Peking

A war broke out, and it was dangerous for the Polo brothers to turn back to Venice. Since they could not safely return home, they decided to travel farther east. As they traveled farther and farther east, the Polo brothers heard wonderful tales of the cities of far-off Cathay. After traveling many hundreds of miles, they finally reached Peking in northern China. It was the capital of Kublai Khan (kōō’blī kǎn’), the great Khan of the Mongols.

The Great Khan was more polite to the European traders than an earlier khan had been to Friar John. The Great Khan asked many questions about ways of living in Europe and about the Christian religion. He gave the Polos a letter to the Pope. In the letter he asked the Pope to send a hundred missionaries and teachers to Peking. The Polo brothers promised to return with the one hundred Europeans.

It took the Polo brothers three years to make their long and difficult return trip, but they did not forget their promise to Kublai Khan. When they reached Italy, there was no Pope, for



he had recently died. Nevertheless, the Polos made ready to return to the court of Kublai Khan at Peking. This time young Marco, now seventeen years old, was to go with them. They had reached the eastern shore of the Mediterranean Sea when they were called back. A new Pope had been chosen. In answer to the Great Khan's letter, the new Pope had decided to send two missionaries to Peking.

Again the Polos started out. They had gone only a short distance into Asia Minor when they heard rumors of wars. The two missionaries decided to return home. The journey would be filled with danger. The travelers might lose their lives. The daring Polos went on, however, traveling by land to the Persian Gulf. At the southern end of the Persian Gulf they hoped to take a boat to China, but they could get no passage. They then traveled northeastward and eastward across the endless deserts and high plateaus of Central Asia.

After three and a half years of travel, the Polos began to hear news of Kublai Khan. They learned that he was at his summer palace northwest of Peking. The Khan, too, heard with pleasure that the Polos were coming. When they were still forty days away, his escorts met the Polos and brought them in safety and honor to his summer palace. The Great Khan was, of course, disappointed that there were no missionaries and teachers with the Polos. He was not disappointed in young Marco, however.

Marco Polo in China and Neighboring Lands

Kublai Khan liked and trusted young Marco Polo. He sent the young European on many errands throughout his empire and even to lands beyond his empire. Those trips for the Khan were amazing experiences to a young man who had grown up in Europe in the late Middle Ages. Marco Polo was very surprised to see cities in China larger than any city in Europe.

In the busy seaports of China, Marco Polo saw great four-decker junks sailing in and out of the harbors, laden with the

410 goods of China and the rich islands southeast of Asia. On the rivers and canals of China he saw hundreds of smaller boats carrying on a vast trade. He saw the Great Wall, which stretched across northern China. Marco traveled on the Grand Canal, much of which was being built during Kublai Khan's rule. This man-made waterway stretched 1200 miles from Peking to the port of Hangchow on the East China Sea. Marco Polo also admired the swift messenger system of the Grand Khan. Every twenty-five to thirty miles there were stations on the roads with fresh horses for the messengers so that "on all these posts taken together there are more than 300,000 horses kept up."

Marco Polo marveled at the Chinese use of paper, paper money, and printing blocks. He was much impressed with the way the Khan ordered foods to be stored in huge granaries so that there would be enough for all if famine came. Europeans

Can you imagine the thrill that Marco Polo and his uncles got when they reached



were sure Marco Polo was telling “tall tales” when he described how the Chinese burned black stones that we today call “coal.” He wrote, “If you supply the fire with them at night, and see that they are well kindled, you will find them still alight in the morning; and they make such capital fuel that no other is used throughout the country.”

Marco Polo’s travels for the Great Khan carried him from the borders of Tibet to Burma and Indo-China. He also sailed to the islands we now call the “East Indies.” In his travels he heard of the kingdom of Zipangu (zǐ·pǎng’gōo), or Japan, which lay east, across the sea from China.

Marco Polo made careful and interesting reports to the Khan of all he saw and learned in his travels. These reports were so valuable to Kublai Khan that he kept the Polos at his court year after year. At last, however, he reluctantly allowed them to return home. In a fleet of many ships they sailed from a port in

the court of Kublai Khan? What wonderful things did they find in China?



China. They went south, stopping for a time on the island of Java. In all, their homeward journey took more than three years. Twenty-four years had passed since they had left Venice.

The Homecoming of the Polos

No one knew the Polos when they reached their old home in Venice. No one would believe that they were the Polos. Then Marco thought of a way of showing the friends and relatives in Venice that the returned travelers were really the Polos. He proposed that he and his father and uncle should give a banquet. When the guests arrived, they found the Polos dressed in gorgeous crimson robes of satin. These robes they removed and gave to the servants. Under the robes of satin were robes of crimson linen. These they also took off and gave away. Underneath the robes of linen, the Polos were wearing the most beautiful clothes of all, robes of crimson velvet.

Then Marco brought out the worn and soiled clothes that the Polos had been wearing on their long journey home. He opened the seams and out fell rubies, diamonds, sapphires, and many other precious jewels. Among the jewels were some that the guests knew had belonged to the Polo family. Then they knew that their hosts were really Nicolo, Maffeo, and Marco Polo, who so many years ago had set out for the court of the Great Khan of the Mongols.

Three years after the Polos returned, there was a war between Venice and Genoa. Marco Polo was taken prisoner by the Genoese. In prison there was a man who was so interested in the tales Marco Polo was telling his fellow-prisoners that he persuaded Marco Polo to dictate an account of his adventures to him. Later, busy scribes made many copies of *The Travels of Marco Polo*. People who could afford such an expensive thing as a hand-written book eagerly bought and read *The Travels*. Few people in that day believed the stories, however. The stories did, however, teach Europeans that there were vast lands and



interesting civilizations in that part of Asia which we often call the Far East.

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After Marco Polo

As long as the vast empire of the Mongols held together, European and Jewish traders and missionaries continued to travel to China and other lands in the Far East. One missionary built a Christian chapel in Peking near the palace of Kublai Khan. The Great Khan enjoyed walking in his garden and listening to the ringing of the chapel bells and the singing of the choir.

After the vast Mongol empire broke up, however, travel to the Far East was no longer safe. The precious goods of the Far East again reached Europe through "go-betweens." The Arabs, and especially the Turks, did their best to keep the European traders and missionaries away from Asia. Europeans had seen the lands of eastern Asia, and now they would not rest until they found a way to reach the lands of spices, silks, and jewels.



PORTUGUESE DISCOVERIES

Far out on the western edge of the Iberian Peninsula lay the little kingdom of Portugal. By the middle of the thirteenth century the Portuguese had succeeded in driving the Moors out of Portugal. The Moors, however, still controlled the Strait of Gibraltar, and so shut off Portugal from trade in the Mediterranean Sea. She had good ships, but where could she send them to help the trade of Portugal?

Prince Henry the Navigator

Young Prince Henry, son of the King of Portugal, began to think that maybe there was a way for Portugal to work up a good trade. We are not certain that he thought Portuguese ships would ever actually reach India and Cathay. His experiences in a crusade against the Moors in western Africa had

414 taught him a little about the vastness of Africa. He saw that the Moors knew more than Europeans about mathematics and astronomy and geography. He learned, too, what good traders they were. Prince Henry decided to spend his life helping the navigators of Portugal to find out more about the sea. People nicknamed him "Henry the Navigator," usually adding, "He never goes to sea."

Portuguese Navigators along the Coast of Africa

At a lonely little town on the southwestern tip of Portugal, Prince Henry built a simple home and an observatory. He also built a school for navigators. He called together learned Jewish and Moorish mathematicians and astronomers and skillful navigators to teach in his school. Here came the young men he hoped to make captains of his ships. They were instructed in sailing, in the use of the compass, and in map making.

What instruments do you see in this picture of Prince Henry's school?



Prince Henry collected all the maps he could find. He also collected many books and records of travel. Among his precious books was a copy of *The Travels of Marco Polo*. His brother had been given a copy of this valuable book when he made a visit to Venice. In Prince Henry's collection there was also a map which Marco Polo was supposed to have made.

Time after time Prince Henry sent out ships which sailed along the west coast of Africa. As he directed, each expedition built a stone tower at the most southern point it reached. Soon there were more and more stone towers along the west coast of Africa. Remains of some of the towers still stand where brave Portuguese navigators placed them. The daring explorers found the Madeira (mă·dēr'ă) Islands and the Canary Islands. He sent Portuguese settlers to the islands. Far out in the Atlantic Portuguese explorers discovered the Azores Islands.

When Prince Henry the Navigator died, in 1460, his captains had not yet sailed as far south as the equator. Portuguese boats, however, were very busy carrying on trade with Africa. Each fall fleets of boats set out from Lisbon for the west coast of Africa. They were loaded with red caps, bells, Venetian beads, horses, and other things to trade with the people of Africa. In the spring the fleets came back to Portugal laden with pepper, elephant tusks, and chests of gold dust. Unfortunately they also brought people from Africa to sell as slaves in Portugal and other parts of Europe.

Some years later the Portuguese again began to try to reach the southern end of Africa. By now they had the idea that boats might sail around the southern coast of Africa and eventually reach India. Again Portuguese explorers were building stone towers farther and farther south on the coast of Africa. They were proving that the waters to the south were just as easy to sail in as those that washed the shores of Portugal. By 1484 Portuguese navigators had crossed the equator and reached the mouth of the Congo River.



Bartholomew Diaz Rounded the Cape of Good Hope

The King of Portugal decided that another attempt should be made to reach the southern end of Africa. For this task he chose Bartholomew Diaz (dē'äts), who was probably one of the very ablest of Portugal's fine seamen. In August, 1486, Diaz and his men set out with three boats. On and on they sailed. Finally they passed the last stone tower. Later, they passed a cape close to the mouth of the Orange River.

Then Diaz determined to strike boldly ahead. For thirteen days the ships sailed on and on without seeing land. They ran into bad storms. Suddenly the weather grew much colder. The farther south they sailed, the colder it became. When the storm cleared, they steered east in an effort to find the coast of Africa again. They reached no land, and so Diaz ordered the boats to turn northward. They came into a bay that today is called

Vasco da Gama was the first explorer to reach India by sailing around Africa.





Mossel Bay. Mossel Bay is just about in the center of the south coast of Africa. They continued to sail east for a while. All the time there was land to the north and northwest of them.

By this time the crew refused to sail any farther, and Diaz agreed to turn back. As he sailed back, Diaz discovered to his great joy that his boats had actually rounded the southern end of the great continent of Africa. It is said that he named the southernmost cape of Africa the Cape of Storms. When the king heard the good news that the southern end of Africa had been reached at last, he changed the name to the Cape of Good Hope. Surely Portuguese ships would some day reach India!

Vasco da Gama Reached India

In the year Henry the Navigator died, Vasco da Gama (dä gä'mä) was born. To him was to fall the honor of finally reaching India by sailing around Africa. All Portugal was excited when news spread that da Gama was going to make the

daring attempt to reach India by sailing around Africa. The night before the ships were to sail, lights shone from the hills above the harbor. Special church services were held, mass was said, and prayers were offered. The next morning, to the sound of music and with banners flying, da Gama's little fleet started out on its long voyage.

Twenty days later the explorers reached the Cape Verde Islands. For a time they followed the coast of Africa. Then they swung far out in the Atlantic. Almost five months after they had left Portugal, they sailed into Mossel Bay. On Christmas Day they were sailing along the southeastern coast of Africa and named it Natal in honor of the day.

A little farther north they found an Arab pilot to guide them to India. They continued north along the east coast of Africa and then sailed across the Arabian Sea in a northeasterly direction. In May, 1497, their pilot brought them into the harbor at Calicut, on the west coast of India. The men put up a marble pillar. Now the stone pillars of the Portuguese stretched from the northwest coast of Africa to the western shore of far-away India! No longer would Europeans be shut off from trade with India, China, the Spice Islands, the lands of the Far East.

While the Portuguese had been busy trading with Africa and at last reaching India, the Spanish had also been trying to reach the lands of the Far East. Five years before da Gama sailed into the harbor at Calicut, the Spanish thought they had reached some islands off the southeast coast of Asia. It is time now to tell the story of Spanish explorations and of many Europeans who boldly sailed to distant parts of the world.

THINGS TO DO

I. QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS.

1. What do we mean by "go-between" traders of Ancient Times? Who were the most important "go-between" traders of the Middle Ages?

2. When the Mongols swept over Russia what did the Pope fear? What did he do?
3. What did Friar John and Monk Benedict see and hear in Mongolia?
4. How did the Polo brothers happen to make their first trip to Peking? How did Kublai Khan show his interest in Western Europe?
5. What new ways of living did Marco Polo see while he was in China?
6. How were the stories of the travels of Marco Polo preserved? Were Europeans interested in them?
7. How did Prince Henry of Portugal help the Portuguese traders and navigators? Why did he help them?
8. What islands did the Portuguese explorers discover off the coast of Africa?
9. How was the Cape of Good Hope discovered and named?
10. What famous journey did Vasco da Gama make? What was the date of this important journey?

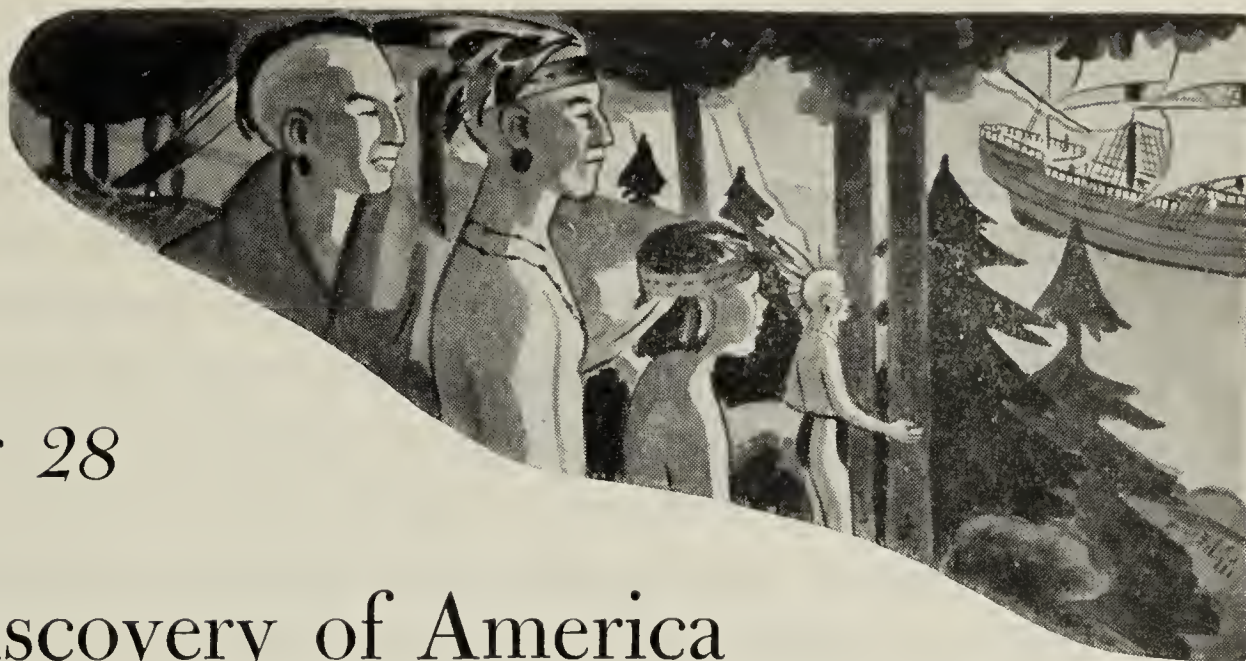
II. TRAVEL MAPS. Divide your class into groups to make large wall maps that show the journeys of the famous travelers you have read about in this chapter. You may have each map tell one story. Print on the map the far-off places visited by each group of explorers and draw a heavy colored line to show the routes they took. Study the story carefully to be sure that your maps are accurate. Pictures will make your maps more interesting and help tell the story. Be sure to have a key to explain the maps.

III. A WHO'S WHO CHART OF EXPLORERS. Start a Who's Who chart of explorers and their discoveries for your

notebook record. Fill in the information that you learned as you studied this chapter. You will add to this chart as you read the other chapters in this unit. Arrange your paper like this.

Who's Who Among The Explorers			
The Explorers	Dates	Their Discoveries	Their Nationality

- IV. SOME TALL TALES. Divide your class into groups to act out scenes in which the explorers return home and tell the stories of their travels to their friends. You may think of other scenes in the story of “How European Explorers Reached India” that you want to dramatize.
- V. A DIARY OF ADVENTURE. Make believe that you are Marco Polo. Write a diary of some of your adventures during your long, long travels.
- VI. PICTURES OF EXPLORERS AND NEW LANDS. Some of you will enjoy drawing pictures of the explorers and the sights they saw in their visits to strange new lands. Post your pictures on the bulletin board and they will make a story frieze of discovery and exploration.
- VII. A LIST OF DIFFICULTIES. Make a list of all the reasons why it was difficult for the early explorers to travel to and from distant lands. Compare your list with those of your classmates. Remember to put a list in your class book.
- VIII. WHY THEY WENT. Have a class discussion to talk about why the Europeans went exploring. After you have exchanged ideas with your classmates write a paragraph that explains *Why They Went*.



Chapter 28

The Discovery of America

In the summer of 1476 a young sailor from Genoa, Italy, was in a fleet sailing for Lisbon. The fleet was attacked and his ship sunk. The young man leaped into the sea, grasped a piece of floating wreckage, and with its help managed to reach the shore six miles away. The young man who was thus washed up on the shore of Portugal was later to make the most important voyage in the history of the world. He was Christopher Columbus.

THE VOYAGES OF COLUMBUS

Christopher Columbus was born in Genoa in 1451. He was the son and grandson of weavers. As he grew into a tall, red-haired boy, he probably received little or no schooling. With his brother Bartholomew it was his job to card the wool which their mother spun and wove into cloth. As the boys worked, they could see the ships coming and going in the harbor of Genoa. Later, when he became a young man, Columbus sailed on boats bound for many ports on the shores of the Mediterranean Sea.

After the shipwreck near Portugal, Columbus soon found his way to Lisbon. There the penniless young man found work on another ship, and on his first trip out of Lisbon he sailed to

422 Ireland and Iceland. After his return from Iceland and Ireland, Columbus and his brother Bartholomew kept a shop, where they made and sold charts and maps. Here in Lisbon the unschooled Columbus had the opportunity to learn Portuguese and Spanish. He learned Latin, too, so that he could read the books that had been written about geography. He became the proud owner of a copy of *The Travels of Marco Polo*. In Lisbon, Columbus also learned mathematics and astronomy, shipbuilding and rigging. Most important of all, he was in the right spot to hear all about the discoveries the Portuguese explorers were making in Africa.

Columbus's Idea

During the years he lived in Lisbon, Columbus also made trips to the west coast of Africa and westward to the Azores (*ä·zōrz'*). He exchanged ideas with scholars who had long

Columbus and his brother in their shop in Lisbon, Portugal. What did they sell?



studied the old maps. There were a few who were beginning to say that it might be possible to sail west to reach Cathay and India and the Spice Islands. Pilots west of the Azores had picked up pieces of carved wood that did not come from trees growing in Europe or Africa. Columbus heard stories of two strange bodies with broad faces which had been washed ashore. And there were rumors of islands west of the Azores.

Columbus became more and more certain that he could sail west and reach the islands east of Asia. He went to the King of Portugal and asked for ships and a crew to make the daring trip. Secretly the king sent two explorers to try out Columbus's idea. They ran into such heavy winds out on the Atlantic that they turned back to Portugal. The king then refused Columbus's request.

At about the same time that Columbus received the king's discouraging answer, his wife died. Poor and sad, Columbus and his little son Diego (dē·ā'gō) set out for Spain. Columbus had decided to try to get help from Ferdinand and Isabella, the king and queen of Spain. He had been in Spain only a short time when the King of Portugal asked him to come back. Leaving Diego with kind monks in Spain, Columbus returned to Lisbon. While he was there, Bartholomew Diaz came sailing into the harbor. He, of course, brought the good news that his boats had rounded the Cape of Good Hope. Now the king knew for certain that he was not interested in Columbus's plan to sail west to reach the "Indies." Again Columbus set out for Spain.

Columbus in Spain

Ferdinand and Isabella were very busy rulers. Just then they were driving the Moors out of the southern part of Spain. They took a long time making up their minds about Columbus's scheme for reaching the Indies by sailing west. While Columbus waited year after year in Spain, his brother Bartholomew

tried to get help from the king of England and the king of France, but he did not succeed.



At last, early in January, 1492, the war with the Moors ended. Columbus joyously marched in the procession which marked the end of the war. Now surely Ferdinand and Isabella would at last grant his request, thought the patient, determined man. The king and queen called Columbus to come to see them. But they told the eager man, who had waited so long, that they would give him no help. Angry and dejected, Columbus saddled his mule, packed his saddlebags with his few clothes, his precious books, and world chart, and set off to catch a ship for France.

Columbus had not gone far when a messenger from the queen overtook him. He must come back to the court immediately. The queen had changed her mind. What if Columbus were right? There was so little to lose if Columbus were wrong. There was so much to gain if Columbus were right. The queen, as she thought about it, became so excited that she even offered to pawn her jewels to help Columbus, but that was not necessary.

Columbus was to have the ships and crew he needed. He was to be "Admiral of the Ocean Sea, Viceroy and Governor over all islands and mainlands which shall be discovered or acquired by his labor and industry." Although there had been no "Grand Khan" in China since 1368, the king and queen gave Columbus letters of introduction "for the Grand Khan, for all the kings and lords of India and of any other region that he might find in the lands which he might discover." Their letters showed how little Europeans knew about the Far East in 1492.

Crossing the Atlantic

Before daybreak on the morning of August 3, 1492, Columbus went to church in the little port of Palos. In the grey dawn the three little ships, the *Santa Maria* (sän'tä mä·rēä), the *Pinta* (pēn'tä), and the *Nina* (nē'nä), started out on their long voyage

to reach the "Indies" by sailing west. Columbus stopped at the Canaries for several days for repairs and to put more firewood, water, bread, and meat on the ships. No one knew how long this voyage across unknown seas might last, and the ships must be well stocked with provisions. Then Columbus headed straight west. Now he and his men had the vast, uncharted ocean to themselves. What lay ahead of them?

For many days the expedition had fine sailing weather. The northeast trade winds blew the little ships steadily westward. When they ran out of the helpful trade winds, they found rougher seas and they had much rain. Twice they thought they sighted land, only to be disappointed.

After three weeks of sailing on that unknown sea without sight of land, the men were beginning to fear that it might be impossible to turn around and sail home again. Some of the men on the *Santa Maria* threatened to mutiny. Columbus calmed them and promised to turn back in a few days if no land were found.

In the sunset of October 7, Columbus saw great flocks of birds flying to the southwest. Wisely he changed his course to follow the birds. By October 11 there were so many signs of land that "everyone breathed more freely and grew more cheerful." A sailor on the *Nina* found a green branch with a little flower that looked like the dogrose that grew on hedges in Castile. Crew members on the *Pinta* picked up a cane, a piece of board, a land plant, and a carved stick.

Land! Land!

There was little sleep on the three little ships that night of October 11, 1492. Columbus and a few others thought they saw a light that "was like a little wax candle rising and falling." The moon was bright, and at about two in the morning the look-out on the *Pinta* could make out white sand cliffs and a dark line of land in the distance. "Land! Land!" he cried. The good



426 news was signaled to the *Santa Maria* and the *Nina*. Until day-break the boats drifted at a safe distance from the shore, impatiently waiting for the dawn.

When day came, Columbus and his men saw red-skinned people on the shore of the island. To the surprise of the natives, the bearded white men came on shore. They carried banners and a large cross. "And, all having rendered thanks to Our Lord kneeling on the ground, embracing it with tears of joy for the immeasurable mercy of having reached it, the Admiral arose and gave this island the name of *San Salvador* (săn sǎl'vâ·dôr)." Then, in the name of the King and Queen of Spain, he took possession of the island. The island Columbus had reached is one of the Bahama (bâ·hă'mă) Islands. Today it is called Watling Island.

Columbus was certain he had reached some islands on the edge of the "Indies." The explorers spent many weeks sailing

What excitement when sailors on the *Nina* found signs of land!



among these islands on the outer edge of the "Indies." They were enchanted with the beauty of the islands. "The singing of the little birds is such that it appears a man would wish never to leave here, and the flocks of parrots obscure the sun," wrote Columbus. He saw little patches of corn here and there among the islands. Some of the natives rested in an interesting sort of swing, called a "hammock." Some wore earrings of gold. But where was Cathay, with its Great Khan for whom Columbus had a letter?

The Return Voyage

On Christmas Day the *Santa Maria* struck a reef off the island of Haiti and was wrecked. With their largest ship gone, Columbus had to leave some of his men on the island while the *Nina* and *Pinta* made the trip back to Spain. In January the two little ships set out to make the long voyage home.

Now Columbus and his crews did not have the help of the friendly trade winds. For a time things went well, and then a terrible storm arose. For many long days and nights the two little ships tossed helplessly in the angry sea. Columbus became certain that he would never reach Spain. He took a piece of parchment and in the tossing ship wrote a short account of the great discovery he had made. He wrapped the parchment in a waxed cloth and then put it into an empty barrel and threw it into the raging Atlantic.

At last the storm slowly subsided, and on February 18 the two little ships and the weary crews reached the Azores. They had not gone far from the Azores when they found themselves in the midst of a hurricane. Again they were certain that they



Who do you suppose was the more interested, Columbus or the Indians?



would perish. Storm-tossed all the way, Columbus finally managed to reach Portugal. Among the visitors who came on the *Nina* was Bartholomew Diaz. There on the little ship, two of the bravest and greatest explorers of history were together for a short time.

Columbus's return to Spain was one long, triumphant procession. People lined the roads and shouted with joy. On Palm Sunday, 1493, he passed through Seville. In the procession walked the six Indians he had brought back with him. Parrots and other tropical birds added color to the procession. When he reached Barcelona, the King and Queen received him most royally. No longer was he begging for a little fleet to try out his idea of sailing west to reach the "Indies." Now he sat beside the King and Queen, for he was "Admiral of the Ocean Sea, Viceroy and Governor" of the islands he had discovered.

Later Voyages of Columbus

Columbus made three more trips to the "Indies." On these voyages he discovered many islands, among them Dominica (dŏm'ĩ·nē'cà) and Trinidad (trĩn'ĩ·dăd). He was certain that Cathay and India lay somewhere beyond the islands he found. Once he sighted the coast of South America but thought it was another island. He explored the coast of the part of America we now call Central America. In all these travels, Columbus had many misfortunes—leaky boats, ill health, and rebellion. But through all his troubles and disappointments he kept on hoping to find the rich lands of the Far East.

When at last Columbus came home to Spain after his fourth and last voyage, he was a sick, broken old man. Queen Isabella was dying and King Ferdinand paid no attention to him. Two years later Columbus died, not knowing that the "Indies" he had found lay beside two vast, unknown continents. He it was who had shown the way to the New World. That honor and glory can never be taken from him.



OTHER VOYAGES

Columbus's proof that it was possible to sail across the Atlantic soon caused many other explorers to try to find Zipangu (zǐ·pǎng'gōo), Cathay, India, and the Spice Islands. Thrifty King Henry VII of England gave John Cabot, an Italian navigator, permission to hire English sailors and to sail west to Cathay. He gave Cabot no ships or money to make the trip. For six weeks Cabot, in a little ship with eighteen men, sailed across the North Atlantic.

In June, 1497, Cabot probably landed on what is now called Cape Breton Island and sailed along the shore around the mouth of the St. Lawrence River. His main discovery was the rich fishing grounds in the North Atlantic. He returned to England disappointed because he did not find Japan and China. For all his effort, Henry VII made him Grand Admiral, gave him £10, and the right to make another voyage. In 1498 Cabot sailed along Newfoundland and Nova Scotia. His discoveries gave England claim to much of North America.



Naming the New World

Men who sailed with Columbus on his first and second voyages were soon making voyages of their own. On such a voyage was an Italian named Amerigo Vespucci (ä'mă·rē'gō vēs·pōot'-chē). We know little about him except what he himself wrote. It does not seem likely that he did as much exploring as he claimed. One voyage in which Vespucci took part sailed along a coast where the foundations of the native villages reminded the explorers of old Venice. They gave the land the name of "Little Venice," or Venezuela (vēn'ē·zwē'là).

Gradually it was dawning on Vespucci and other explorers that the coasts they were exploring did not belong to Asia. "It is proper to call it a New World," wrote Amerigo Vespucci. In 1507 a German geographer published a map on which he

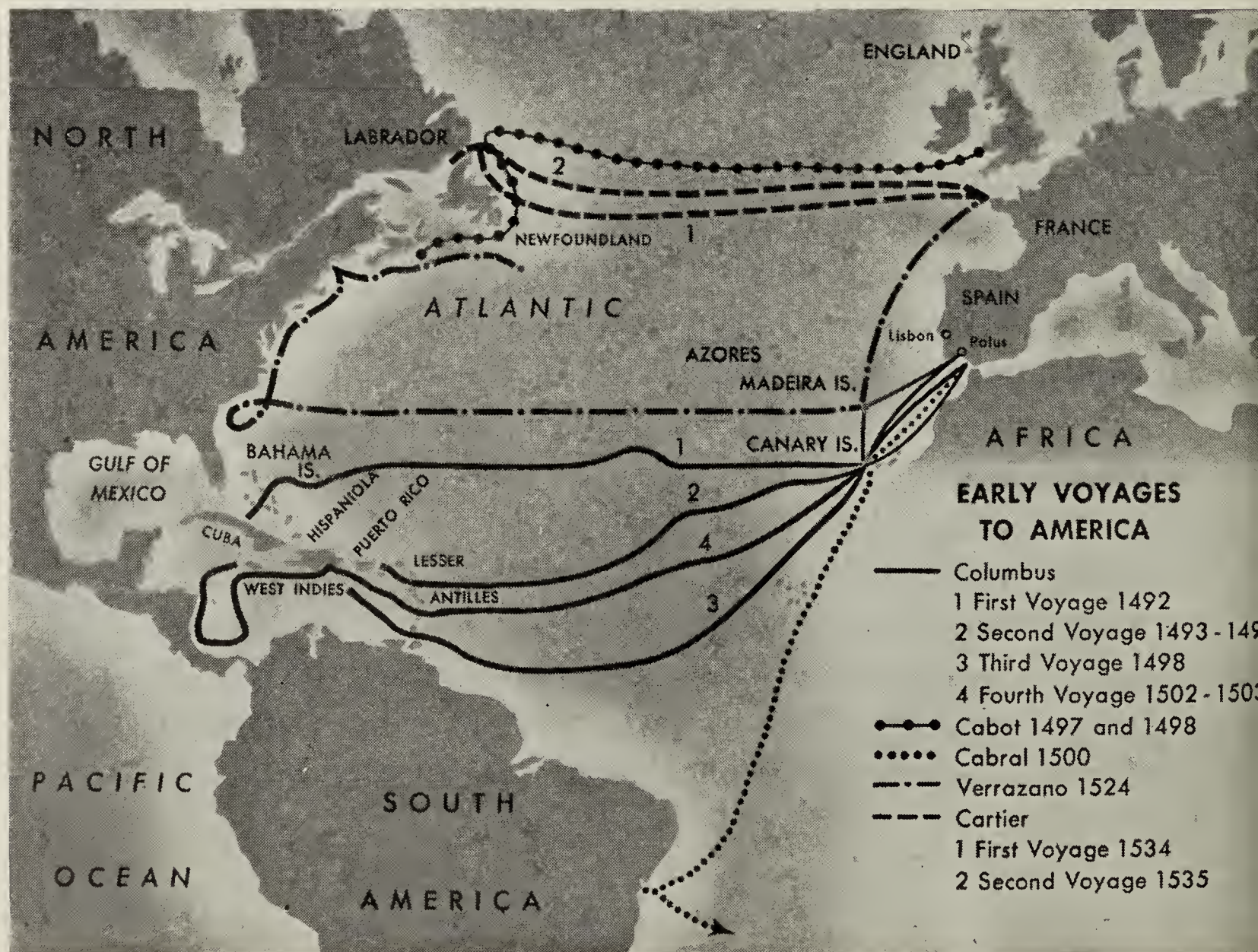


marked a large mass of land at the western edge of the Atlantic Ocean with the name "America," which is Latin for Amerigo.

In 1513 the German geographer made a new map. In it the large land mass was not called America. It was simply marked "Terra Incognita," which means "Unknown Land." He put in an inscription which said, "This land with the adjacent islands was discovered by Columbus of Genoa by order of the King of Castile." The name "America," however, was now known in Europe, and thus the two vast continents of the New World were ever after called America.

Cabral Reached South America

In 1500 the King of Portugal sent out a fleet to India under the command of Pedro Cabral (pē'drō cāb·rāl'). Among the men was Bartholomew Diaz. Cabral swung his fleet far out into the Atlantic and came to a new land. The men who went on land reported that "it was a fruitful country, full of trees and



well inhabited. The people were swarthy and used bows and arrows." They gave the land the name of "Land of the Holy Cross." Later it was changed to Brazil.

Brazil had probably been seen by the Spanish in the same year. Credit for its discovery, however, is given to Cabral, and Brazil became a Portuguese possession. After Cabral left Brazil his fleet ran into a terrific storm. Four ships went down. On one of them was Diaz. The courageous old explorer ended his days in the waters he had been the first to sail.

The Discovery of the Pacific Ocean

In 1513 a Spaniard named Vasco Núñez de Balboa (dě bāl·bō'ā) was in Darien (dâr'ĩ·ĕn'), which is the old name for the Isthmus of Panama. From the Indians he heard of a great sea which lay beyond Darien. The Indians told also of gold which was "six suns away." With 190 Spaniards and 1000 Indians, Balboa set out to find the great sea. Balboa's men cut their way through deep, steamy jungles and crossed steep mountains.

At last the Indian guides took Balboa's party up on a high mountain. Balboa climbed to the top of the mountain, stood still for a moment, and then dropped on his knees in prayer. Weeping and shouting, the men rushed to the top. Far below they saw a bay, and beyond the bay stretched the vast sea. Balboa named it the "Great South Sea." Later it was named the Pacific Ocean.

THE SEARCH FOR A STRAIT THROUGH THE AMERICAS

To many of the explorers who sailed west in the hope of reaching the Far East, America was a disappointment. They looked upon it as an obstruction to their dreams of reaching the gold and spices of Asia. The explorers began to think that if they could find a passage or strait through America, they would surely soon reach the islands off the coast of Asia. The search

for a strait through the Americas was to go on for many years and under many flags.

Verrazano and Cartier

In 1524 an Italian explorer by the name of Verrazano (vēr'-rät·sä'nō) sailed west for the king of France to try to find China. He probably came to the coast of North Carolina. He sailed north along the coast looking for a strait to the west. He was probably the first European to sail into New York Bay and the mouth of the Hudson River. Verrazano sailed as far north along the coast of North America as Newfoundland and then returned to France.

Ten years later another French explorer, Jacques Cartier (kār'tyā'), came to the shores of North America looking for a strait to the west. He made three and possibly four voyages in his attempts to find a way to China. Cartier explored the St.

Balboa and his brave men saw the vast Pacific Ocean from a mountain top. How had



Lawrence River, at least as far as Mount Royal, where Montreal now stands. Of one group of Indians he met up the river he wrote, "There came to meet us more than a thousand persons, both men and women, and children, who gave us as good a welcome as ever father gave to his son, making great signs of joy; for the men danced in one ring, the women in another, and the children also apart by themselves."

In just a few years after Columbus had found some islands off the coast of North America, European explorers had made many discoveries along the eastern coast of North America, Central America, and South America. They had explored many of the islands that we today call the West Indies. Balboa had found the ocean which lay west of America. The explorers had learned that a vast New World prevented them from reaching India, China, and Japan. Verrazano and Cartier had started on the long search for a passage through the Americas. In later years

they made their way across the mountains and through the forests?



434 other explorers would find out what America was like, with its great rivers, high mountains, beautiful valleys, lakes, and plains.

THINGS TO DO

I. QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS.

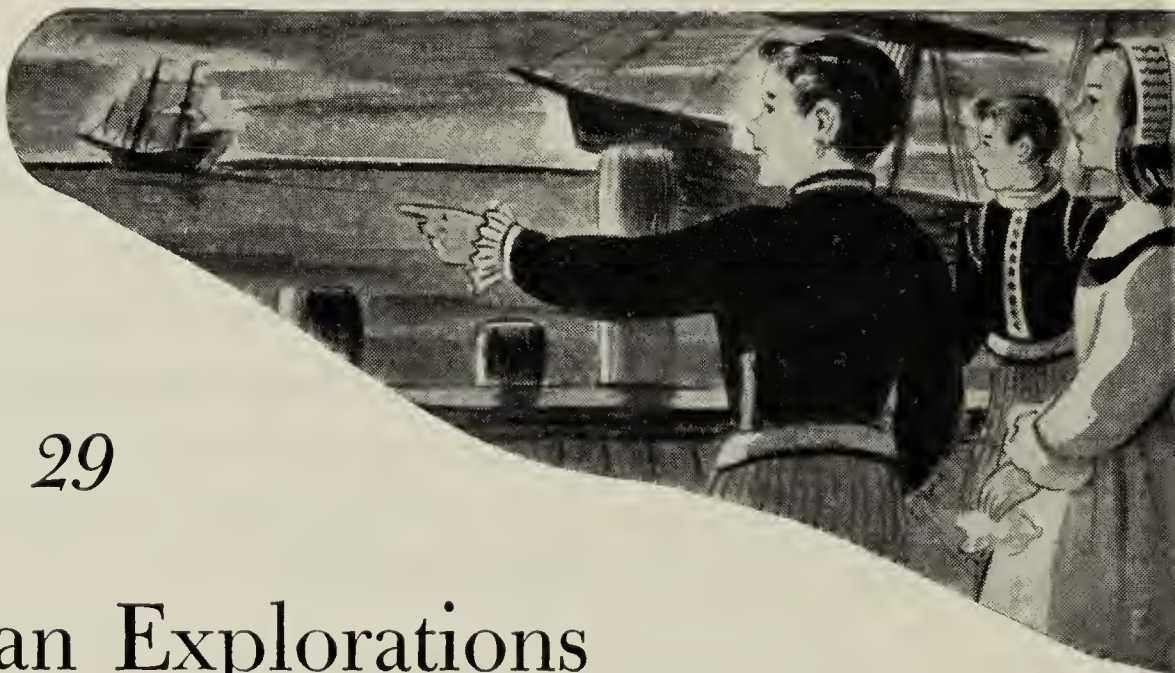
1. How did Columbus prepare himself for his daring voyage?
2. What great idea came to Columbus while he lived in Portugal?
3. Why did the King of Portugal refuse to help Columbus carry out his idea?
4. Who finally helped Columbus? Why? How? When?
5. What did Columbus discover?
6. What questions do you think Diaz asked Columbus in the short visit they had on the *Nina*?
7. How did America get its name?
8. What did England gain by John Cabot's discoveries?
9. Why is Brazil a Portuguese possession?
10. How was the Pacific Ocean discovered? When? By whom?
11. What were Verrazano and Cartier looking for? What did they find?
12. Between the years 1492 and 1534 what had the explorers of Western Europe discovered by sailing westward?

II. FAMOUS VOYAGES ON THE MAP. On an outline map of Europe and the Americas show the voyages and discoveries of the explorers listed below. Print on the map the countries in Europe from which the explorers

came and the names of the places in the New World that they found. Draw colored lines from the place in Europe where each explorer started to the place or places he discovered in the New World. Use a different color for each explorer. Draw little ships on the routes on which you print the names of the bold travelers. The map on page 430 will help you. Be sure to include a key that explains your map.

Christopher Columbus, John Cabot, Amerigo Vespucci, Pedro Cabral, Vasco Núñez de Balboa, Verrazano, Jacques Cartier.

- III. WHO'S WHO IN THE DISCOVERY OF AMERICA. Add to your Who's Who chart the information about the explorers who reached America.
- IV. COLUMBUS DAY. October 12 is a day set apart by Americans each year to honor Christopher Columbus. In a class discussion exchange ideas with your classmates as to why Columbus should be honored. After the discussion write a paragraph that tells why you think Americans should honor this great explorer. Have the class vote on the best paragraph for the Class Book.
- V. MORE PICTURES. There are many interesting events in the story of the Discovery of America that you will enjoy making pictures of to add to your picture frieze of Explorers and New Lands.
- VI. YOU WENT WITH AN EXPLORER. Pretend that you were a cabin boy who went with one of the explorers on a voyage to the New World. Write a letter telling of your journey and adventures. Remember to put one of the best letters in your class book.



Chapter 29

European Explorations in the Americas

When the explorers from Europe found out that a very long body of land prevented them from reaching the lands of Asia, they began a search for a strait that would take their boats through America into the Pacific Ocean. Their search for a strait taught them much about the interior of America. The hope of finding gold in America also lured the explorers into the interior of the New World. The Spanish made the earliest and widest explorations of the mainland of the Americas.

SPANISH EXPLORATIONS

Ponce de Leon in Florida

In 1513, the same year that Balboa discovered the “Great South Sea,” Ponce de Leon (pōn'thă dā lă·ōn') sailed from the West Indies. He was searching for gold and a miraculous fountain of youth which he hoped would make him feel young again. Ponce de Leon found neither gold nor the fountain of youth. He came to a land blooming with flowers, to which he gave the name Florida. A few years later he tried to make a

settlement there, but an Indian's arrow finished the days of the seeker of perpetual youth.

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Cortez in Mexico

Cortez (kôr'těz), mayor of Santiago, Cuba, was made leader of a group which was to go to the land of the Aztecs to search for gold. In 1519 he arrived at the place on the east coast of Mexico where Vera Cruz now stands. Some of the Indians who saw the expedition landing on their shores hurried to the capital of the Aztec empire. They told Montezuma (mōn'tē·zōō'mä), the Aztec ruler, that the strange white men came from "floating towers in the waters of heaven," rode swift horses, and carried "thunder" in their hands.



Ponce de Leon wanted to be young again. Where did he look for youth?

Montezuma grew pale at the news. He was certain that Cortez was the god Quetzalcoatl (kět·säl'kō·ä't'l), who had ridden away long ago. Now Quetzalcoatl had come back to his people. Montezuma sent two high noblemen and one hundred slaves carrying wonderful gifts to Cortez. The Aztec gifts contained armor covered with plates of pure gold, beautifully decorated clothing, gold, and silver statues of birds and animals.

Montezuma hoped the fine presents would satisfy Cortez and that he would go away. Of course the sight of so much gold and silver only made Cortez more eager than ever to try to reach the capital of the Aztecs. To keep his men from deserting he burned or sank all his ships except one little vessel. This he saved to send messages and gifts to the king of Spain.

On his march Cortez was joined by many Indians who did not like the Aztecs and their rule over them. It took many weeks of fighting and marching to reach the capital of the Aztecs. As the army of Spaniards and hostile Indians approached the Aztec capital, Montezuma came out in great state to meet Cortez. Montezuma and Cortez greeted each other politely and pretended to be friends, but they feared each other greatly.



Cortez succeeded in setting up his headquarters in the very palace of Montezuma. Soon the Spaniards managed to seize Montezuma and held him hostage in his own palace. The Spaniards quickly set about collecting gold and silver and other wealth from the provinces of the Aztec empire. The angry Aztecs started a revolt. Cortez tricked Montezuma, and he was killed by his own people. Then in a bitter war Cortez finally conquered the Aztec capital. On the ruins of the Aztec capital they built beautiful Mexico City. It became the capital of a large part of the Spanish empire in the Americas.

Pizarro in Peru

Among the men who crossed the Isthmus of Panama with Balboa was a young Spaniard by the name of Francisco Pizarro (pĩ·zär'rō). He decided that some day he would search for the gold that was "six suns" away. It was the gold of the Incas in Peru that the Indians had described to Balboa and his men.

In 1526 Pizarro started out on his first attempt to reach Peru. In the steaming jungles the clothes of the men rotted and their mildewed hats fell apart. The mosquitoes drove them almost to distraction, and the Indians killed many of the men. But after many starts and set-backs, Pizarro did reach the coast of the empire of the Incas in Peru.

In 1532 Pizarro was ready to start the long, hard climb to the center of the Inca empire. Sometimes the expedition climbed mountains so steep that the men had to get off their horses and lead them as best they could. As the men reached the high al-



SPANISH EXPLORERS in the NEW WORLD

0 |-----| 1000
MILES

itudes, they found the weather bitterly cold. At last Pizarro and his men reached the high valley where Atahualpa (ä'tä·-wäl'pä), the One Inca, was then living. Atahualpa came out to meet Pizarro. Covered with plumes and ornaments of gold and silver, the One Inca was carried on a throne. Thousands of men followed him. Pizarro quickly started a fight and so surprised the Incas that he easily took the One Inca prisoner.



Atahualpa promised the Spaniards he would have a room twenty-two feet long and seventeen feet wide filled halfway up the walls with gold if they would free him. He would have it filled twice over with silver. For two months magnificent golden treasures poured in from all parts of the empire. There were “fountains designed to emit sparkling jets of gold,” and golden trees, plants, animals, birds, and fruits. All these beautiful things the Spaniards melted into gold and silver bars to ship home to Spain. Atahualpa had lived up to his promise, but just the same, Pizarro had him put to death. A year later Pizarro entered Cuzco (kōōs'kō), the capital of the Inca empire.

The Spaniards explored many parts of South America. Lofty mountains and steaming jungles did not keep them from searching for gold. Eager and daring, they went into the lands that now are Chile, Ecuador, Bolivia, Colombia, Paraguay, Uruguay, and Argentina.



Spanish Exploration of the Amazon River

Even though Brazil belonged to Portugal, it was a Spaniard who first accidentally traveled the length of the Amazon River. In 1540 a brother of Pizarro was leading an expedition in search of gold and cinnamon. High in the Andes the expedition ran short of food. Pizarro sent a group of fifty-seven men under the leadership of Francisco de Orellana to find food.

In a “home-made” boat the little group started down a river which took them into a much larger river. They found no food. The current was so swift that they could not turn back. On and

on they went. In one place they found Indian women fighting in a war with a neighboring tribe. The Spaniards called the women "Amazons," and named the river the Amazon River. After many hardships and much suffering, Orellana and the survivors of his little band reached the mouth of the Amazon River.

De Soto's Discovery of the Mississippi River

North of the land of the Aztecs, Spanish explorers also searched for gold and a strait through America. In 1539 Hernando de Soto, with six hundred men, sailed from Havana, Cuba, and landed in Florida near the spot where the city of Tampa now stands. For more than two years he and his expedition wandered in parts of what are now Georgia, North and South Carolina, Alabama, and Mississippi. Nowhere did they find the gold for which they were searching.

In 1541 De Soto crossed the Mississippi River. Along its west

Orellana explored many, many miles on the Amazon River.



442 bank he explored almost as far north as the mouth of the Missouri River. Then he turned south and west, and still there was no gold. Now even De Soto admitted defeat. His men built boats in which to sail down the Mississippi River. In April, 1542, the discouraged band reached the mouth of the Red River. Here De Soto fell ill with a fever and died.

In the fall of 1543, after many more difficulties, three hundred men of De Soto's expedition reached Mexico. They had not found any of the gold for which they had suffered so much, but they had learned about a large area of North America that is now the southern part of the United States.

Coronado's Search for the "Seven Cities"

At the same time that De Soto was wandering hundreds of miles in search of gold, another Spanish explorer was lead-



What was Coronado looking for?

ing an expedition far to the west of De Soto's band. Coronado (kō'rō·nä'dō) and his expedition started out from the west coast of Mexico. Partly by boat and partly by land the expedition traveled northward along the western coast of Mexico. They were looking for the "Seven Cities of Cibola," where it was rumored that there was much gold. Coronado came to some interesting villages of the Pueblo Indians, but he did not find gold.

Coronado divided his expedition into several small groups and sent them searching far and wide throughout what is now the southwestern part of the United States. It was his men who were the first Europeans to see the Colorado River and the

Grand Canyon of the Colorado. Coronado himself headed the group that came out on the Great Plains. There they saw large herds of “hump-backed oxen,” the bison of the Great Plains.

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HENRY HUDSON

Henry Hudson was an English explorer who was searching for a short way to Asia. An English company sent him out to “discover a shorter route to Cathay by sailing over the North Pole”! With his little son Jack, two mates, and a crew of eight, Hudson started out in the little ship *Hopewell* to undertake the dangerous trip. Hudson and his brave little crew traveled farther north than any explorers had thus far gone, but ice and cold finally made them turn back.

The Dutch also were trying to find a short way to Asia. They

Henry Hudson sailed up the Hudson River looking for a route to Asia.



invited Henry Hudson to explore for them. In 1609 he set out in the little ship the *Half Moon* to search for a way to Cathay. He and his crew passed Newfoundland. They sailed south as far as the James River in Virginia, where the English had already made a settlement under Captain John Smith.



Hudson then sailed up the river that today bears his name. The *Half Moon* went as far as the place where the city of Albany now stands. Disappointed at finding no northwest passage, Hudson sailed back down the Hudson River and returned to Europe. The next year he started out again to search for a northwest passage to Asia. This time he sailed for the English. Again he took his boat far north into ice and cold. He found the great northern bay which also bears his name, but the icy waters of Hudson Bay became the grave of him and his son Jack.

FRENCH EXPLORATIONS IN NORTH AMERICA

In the same year that Hudson was sailing the *Half Moon* up the Hudson River, Samuel de Champlain, a French explorer, was sailing south on the River Richelieu (rē'shē·lyû') and on Lake Champlain. Champlain had been sent by France to start a little colony on the St. Lawrence River "which should hold for that country the gateway of the Golden East." The French explorers were so sure that they would find a way to China that they named some rapids in the St. Lawrence River the "Lachine (lă·shēn') Rapids." "Lachine" is the French word for China. In 1608 Champlain settled at what is now Quebec City.



La Salle Gained Louisiana for France

A young Frenchman, René Robert Cavelier de La Salle (dē là sāl'), received a grant of land on the St. Lawrence River above Montreal. From some wandering Seneca Indians La Salle heard of a river which had its source near their country and turned southward.

In 1669 La Salle, with twenty men and seven canoes, started

out to search for the Mississippi River. The party paddled up the St. Lawrence to Lake Ontario and then traveled west across Lake Ontario. On this trip La Salle discovered the Ohio River, passed through Lake Erie, Lake Huron, and Lake Michigan, and went some distance down the Illinois River.

In the same year that La Salle probably reached the Illinois River, Louis Jolliet and Father Marquette (mār'kēt') traveled down the Mississippi River from the mouth of the Wisconsin to the mouth of the Arkansas River. La Salle was still determined to follow the river to its mouth.

Exploring the Mississippi River

By February, 1682, La Salle reached the Mississippi, the river he had tried so long to find. For many weeks his party of Frenchmen and Indians pushed their canoes southward, always on the lookout for whirlpools, sandbars, and floating logs.

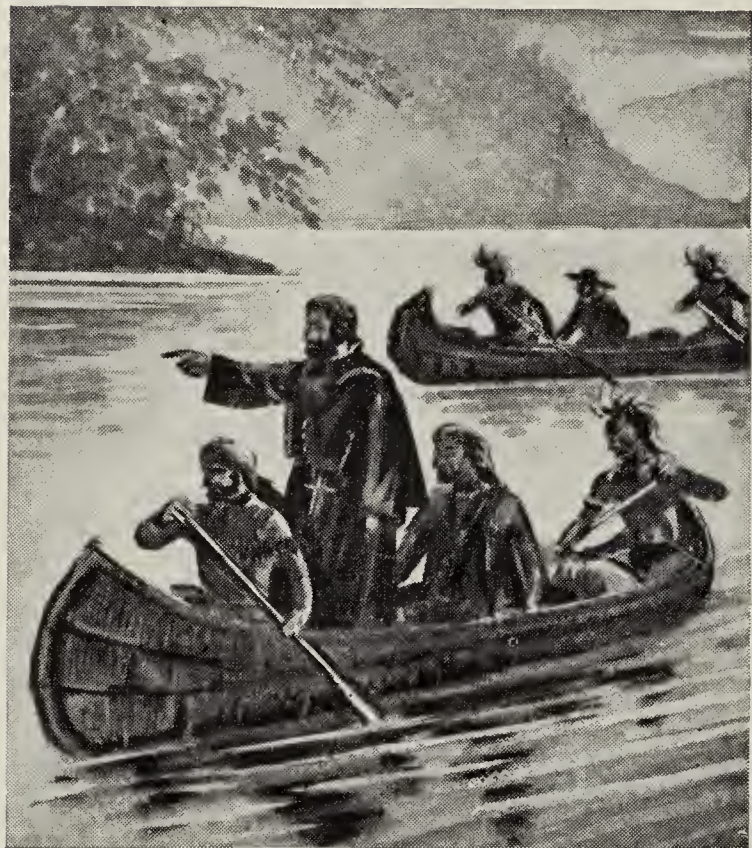
What did La Salle name the large territory that he claimed for France?



At last La Salle reached the Gulf of Mexico.

Even though the Spanish had explored this part of North America almost one hundred and fifty years earlier, La Salle took possession of the territory for France. He named it Louisiana in honor of the King of France. He erected a column and fastened on it the arms of France and an inscription which read,

“Louis the Great, King of France and Navarre, the ninth of April, 1682.”



Jolliet and Father Marquette.

In the years after the discovery of America, European explorers climbed the mountains, crossed the plains, and traveled the rivers of the Americas. They searched for a passage that would take them out into the Pacific Ocean. They hunted for gold and furs. The lands they explored they claimed for their kings. Spain claimed all of South America except Brazil, which was a part of the Portuguese empire. Spain also claimed Central

America, Mexico, the southern part of what is now the United States, and many islands. England claimed the eastern part of what is now the United States. France claimed the Valley of the St. Lawrence River and of the Mississippi River.

Settlers from Europe followed the explorers to the New World. They brought with them the religion, the ideas, and the ways of living of their homes in Europe.

THINGS TO DO

I. QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS.

1. Can you name three things which European explorers hoped to find in the New World?

2. Who discovered Florida?
3. In what part of the Americas did Cortez explore?
4. What great civilization did Cortez find?
5. How did Pizarro conquer the Incas?
6. How much of the Americas did Spain explore?
7. How did the Hudson River get its name? When?
8. Where did Champlain explore in America?
9. What did the French explorations do for France?
10. Who followed the explorers to the New World?
What ways of living did they bring with them?

II. WHO'S WHO IN THE EXPLORATION OF AMERICA. Add to your Who's Who chart some information about the explorers you have read about in this chapter.

III. PICTURES OF EXPLORATIONS IN THE NEW WORLD. Draw pictures for your frieze of some things that happened while men were exploring the Americas.

IV. AMERICA'S TREASURE. Write a paragraph about the treasures found in the New World.

V. A NEWS BROADCAST. Prepare a News Broadcast to tell the important events of this chapter. Divide your class into groups to give the news of different explorers.



Chapter 30

European Explorers in the Far East

In 1492 Columbus thought he had reached some islands in the “Indies” when he sailed west from Europe to America. In 1497 Vasco da Gama really did reach India by sailing around Africa. From that time on, European navigators kept on exploring until they reached almost all parts of the world. Of course they knew almost nothing about the Americas then, and very little about the vast continent of Asia.

The Portuguese in India

In 1499 Vasco da Gama returned from India to Portugal. The trip home had been very difficult. Two of the ships had sunk and many of the crew had died from illness. The people of the city of Lisbon, in Portugal, were wild with joy when the two remaining ships, badly battered, sailed into the harbor. The king of Portugal heaped honors and rewards on Vasco da Gama. The cargo of spices that he brought home were sold for sixty times the cost of the whole long trip. The king now called himself “Lord of the Conquest, Navigation, and Commerce of Ethiopia, Arabia, Persia, and China.” If he had known more

about Asia, he probably would have made his title even longer.

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The next year the king sent Pedro Cabral to India. It was on that voyage that Cabral accidentally landed in the part of South America which is now called Brazil. Calicut, in India, looked very promising to the treasure-seeking Portuguese. The ruler there allowed the Portuguese to build a small trading post at Calicut. The Arab traders did not like this, and they attacked the post, killing the Portuguese there. Cabral angrily bombarded Calicut and sailed away.

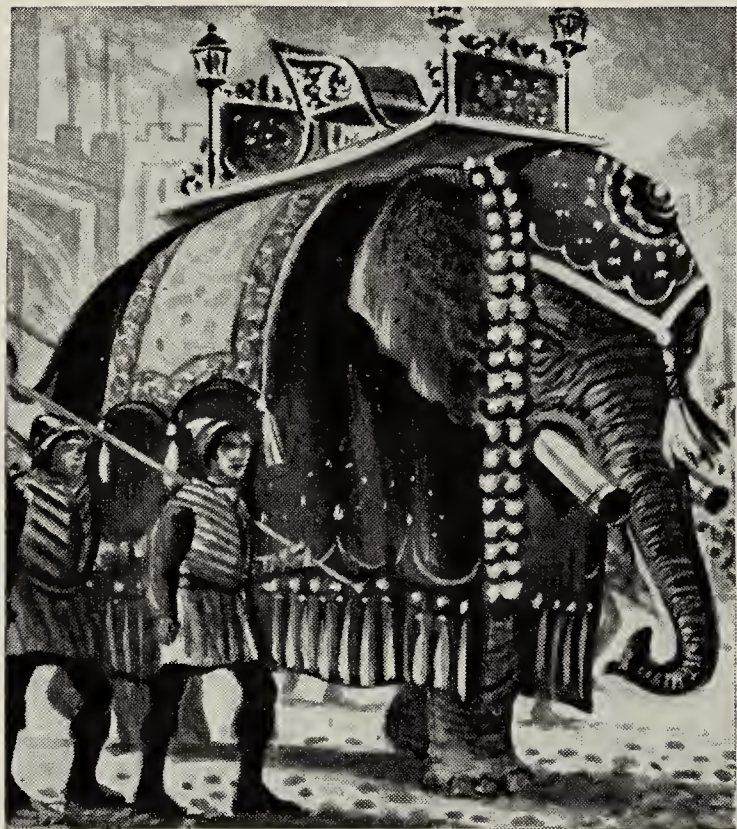
When the king of Portugal heard what had happened at Calicut, he sent a large expedition to India under the command of Vasco da Gama, who was now Admiral of the Eastern Seas. Off the southwest coast of India, Da Gama met a ship of Mohammedan pilgrims who were returning from Mecca. The Portuguese took the money and goods from the ship. One of the Portuguese wrote that they then "burned the ship and all the

What treasures Vasco da Gama brought back to Portugal from India!



450 people on board with gunpowder.” Mohammedan merchants trading in the harbor were also seized and cruelly killed. Again the Portuguese bombarded Calicut. Then Da Gama went from port to port, loading his ships with spices.

Expedition after expedition left Portugal. In many places the Portuguese built strong fortresses. They came to the island of Ceylon. There they built another stone tower. The Portuguese made Goa (gō'á) on the west coast of India the chief center of their trading in India. For a time Goa was probably one of the richest cities in the world. The people traded diamonds, rubies, pearls, and fine horses.



The most exciting product from India was an elephant—the first the Europeans had seen.

The Portuguese in the Malay Peninsula, East Indies, and China

By 1509 Portuguese explorers and traders had sailed east across the Bay of Bengal to the Malay Peninsula. Here they captured the rich city of Malacca (mă·lăk'á).

With 19 ships and 1400 fighting men they conquered the Island of Sumatra. From there Portuguese explorers went still farther. They found Java and island after island rich in cloves and nutmeg and the other spices Europe craved. In these islands they built forts and trading posts and even cities.

In 1516 the Portuguese reached the port of Canton in China. The Chinese thought the Europeans and their boats looked very strange. A few years later the Chinese permitted the Portuguese to build a little settlement near Canton. It grew into the city of Macao. Before the sixteenth century was over, three Portuguese seamen had even visited Japan.

THE FIRST TRIP AROUND THE WORLD

A young man named Ferdinand Magellan was with the Portuguese who came to Malacca and Sumatra. Shortly after he returned to Portugal, he asked the king to let him try to reach the East Indies by sailing west. The king of Portugal coldly refused Magellan's request. Magellan then went to the king of Spain and asked to be allowed to try out his idea. The king gave him a fleet of five ships and a crew of about two hundred eighty men. Of Magellan's ships someone wrote the king of Portugal, "They are very old and patched, and I would be sorry to sail even for the Canaries in them, for their ribs are soft as butter."

Magellan in South America

In September, 1519, Magellan left Seville, in Spain. He went to the Canaries, passed the Cape Verde Islands, and then headed southwest. Late in November the explorers reached the coast of Brazil. In Brazil they found friendly Indians, who traded food for bells, knives, combs, and other trinkets. In the middle of December they sailed into the bay on which the large city of Rio de Janeiro (rē'ō dā zhā·nā'rō) is located today.

Shortly after the New Year the explorers anchored their boats at the mouth of the Rio de La Plata, in what is now Argentina. For many weeks they sailed south along the coast. The southern tip of South America had not been reached and no strait had been found through South America. Winter was coming on and the weather was very stormy. Magellan decided to spend the winter at a place he named Port St. Julian.

For two months, on that bleak, cold coast, Magellan's crew saw no natives. "However, one day," wrote one of Magellan's men, "we saw a giant, who was on the shore of the sea, dancing and leaping and singing. He was so tall that the tallest of us only came up to his waist; he was well built; he had a large face, painted red all round, and his eyes also were painted yellow



around them, and he had two hearts painted on his cheeks; he had but little hair on his head and it was painted white.”

Soon the large dancing man was joined by others. The Indians were much surprised at the little white men they saw in ships anchored off their shore. They thought they had come from heaven. The explorers gave the land the name of Patagonia (pă'tă·gō'nĭ·ă), which means “land of big feet.”

Discovery of the Strait of Magellan

During the winter Magellan sent one of the boats out to see if its crew could find a strait or reach the southern tip of South America. The boat was wrecked in a gale, but the crew was saved. Two men managed to tramp many days along the cold bleak coast of Patagonia to St. Julian for help. When spring came, Magellan led his four boats southward. South and farther south they sailed. Almost two months later they rounded a cape.

What route did the daring Magellan follow on his long voyage?



They found the water was salt. At last it looked as though they had come to a strait through South America.

At the strait the explorers found tremendous tides, storms, and heavy headwinds. The captain of one of the boats secretly slipped away and sailed back home to Spain. Now the little fleet had only three boats left. The men begged Magellan to turn back. "If I have to eat the leather of the ships' yards, yet will I go on and do my work," was his reply.

Crossing the Pacific Ocean

It took the little fleet more than five weeks to battle its way through the strait, which was later named the Strait of Magellan. At last the three little ships reached the Great South Sea. It was so calm and peaceful after the winds and tides of the strait that Magellan changed the name to the Pacific Ocean. Now that the expedition had reached the Pacific Ocean, Magellan headed north along the west coast of South America to get out of the intense cold. Then he set his course northwestward.

Day after day passed. Week after week passed. Still there were no islands. Magellan began to realize that the Pacific Ocean was much wider than the Atlantic Ocean. Two months passed, and still there was no land. Then the men saw a little island, but to their disappointment it was uninhabited. Soon they saw another island, but again they found no people and no food.

In his diary one of the men wrote, "We were three months and twenty days without getting any kind of fresh food. We ate biscuit, which was no longer biscuit, but powder of biscuits swarming with worms, for they had eaten the food. We drank yellow water that had been putrid for many days. We also ate some ox hides that covered the top of the main yard to prevent the yard from chafing the shrouds, and which had become exceedingly hard because of the sun, rain, and wind. We left them in the sea for four or five days and then placed them for a few moments on top of the embers, and so ate them; and often we

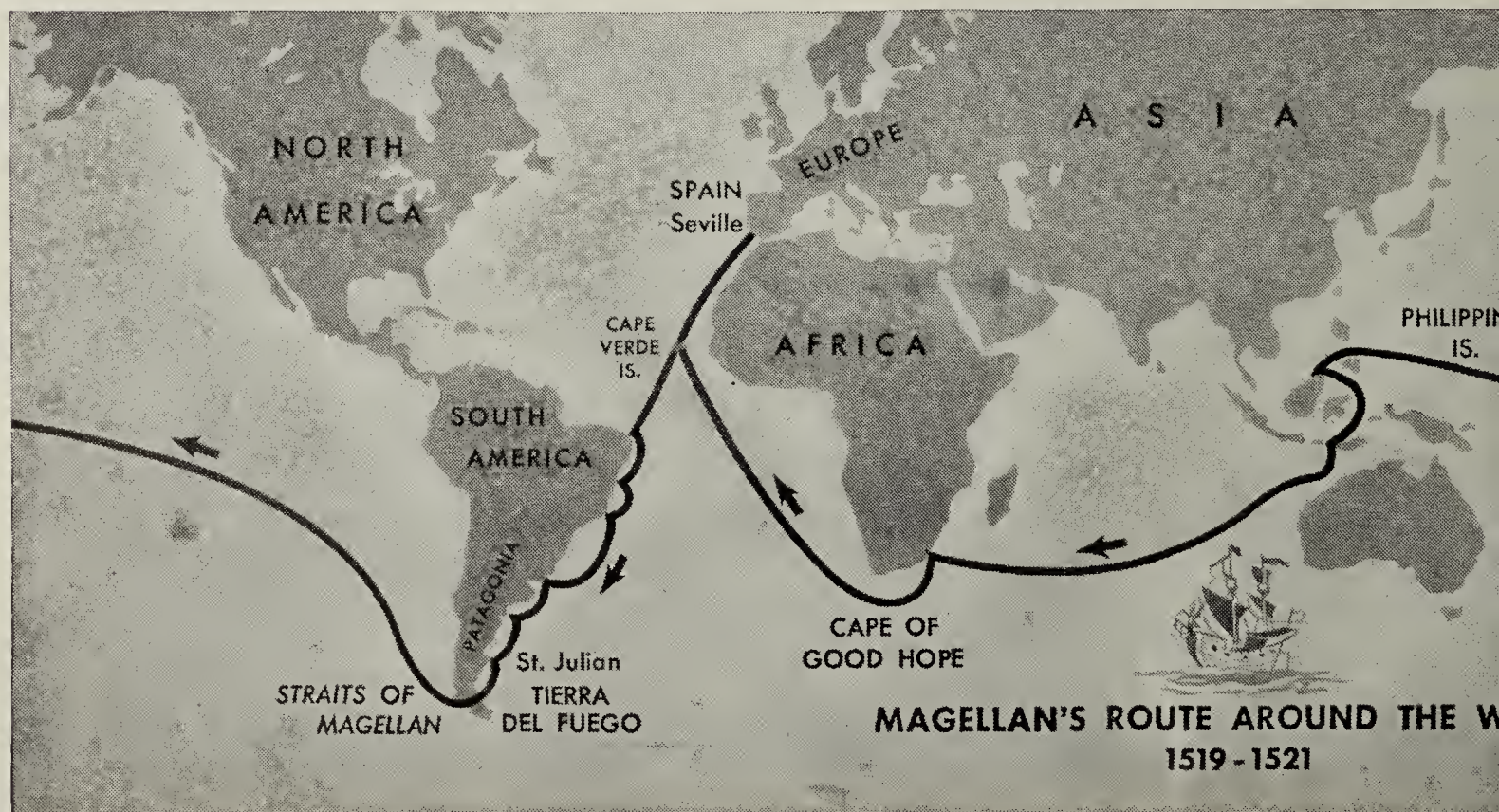


ate sawdust from boards. Rats were sold for one-half ducado apiece, and even then we could not get them. But above all the other misfortunes the following was the worst: the gums of both the lower and upper teeth of some of our men swelled, so that they could not eat and died."

Magellan in the Philippine Islands

At last, after ninety-eight days of sailing, Magellan and his crew came to a little group of islands, where they found men living as men had lived in the Old Stone Age. Some of the natives there stole one of the ship's boats. Magellan named the islands the Ladrone Islands, which means "islands of robbers." The expedition probably first landed on the island of Guam. Now at last the starving crew found fresh food and clean, cool water. Refreshed and rested, they sailed on a few more days and reached a small island close to the island of Samar. Samar is in the eastern part of that large group of islands later called the Philippine Islands in honor of King Philip II of Spain.

In the Philippines Magellan met Chinese merchants who told him that the Spice Islands were not far away, but he did not hurry to find the Spice Islands. He enjoyed sailing among the Philippines. He made friends with many of the people there. He and his men told the people about the Christian religion.



Whenever possible, Magellan collected tribute for the king of Spain from the chiefs in the islands. He became involved in a fight between two chiefs. When Magellan landed on the island of the hostile chief, a fierce fight took place. Again and again Magellan was wounded until “at last the Indians threw themselves upon him with iron-pointed bamboo spears and every weapon they had and ran him through—our mirror, our light, our comforter, our true guide—until they killed him.” Such was the tragic end of Magellan.

The rest of the crew continued southwestward among the Philippines. They found that they were now too few to manage the three ships. They abandoned one ship. In two ships they sailed on to the Moluccas (mō·lŭk’ay), or Spice Islands. One of the boats was too rotten to make the rest of the long journey to Spain and had to be left in the islands. The last little ship of the fleet, the *Victoria*, bravely sailed on.

What good news did Chinese merchants in the Philippines give Magellan?



The Homecoming

On September 8, 1522, the *Victoria* tied up at the quay at Seville. She had sailed around the world! Eighteen pale, weary men, came off the little ship. The spices more than paid for the cost of the expedition. Far more important than the spices was the knowledge the survivors of Magellan's expedition brought home. Now Europeans knew that it was possible to reach the Spice Islands and India and China and Japan by sailing west. They knew also that those islands were far away from Europe.

The Spanish in the Philippines

Portugal tried as hard as she could to keep other Europeans from trading in the Far East. Spain, however, gradually conquered most of the islands in the Philippines and made them a part of her empire. They became a part of the colony governed from Mexico City.

At Manila the warehouses were bulging with goods from the Philippine Islands and from China, India, and the Spice Islands. The first boat that came back from Manila to Acapulco carried in its cargo such things as Persian rugs, chinaware, diamond rings, necklaces of rubies, pearls "as big as a dove's egge," eyeglasses, paper balloons, and brass bells. From Mexico the treasures collected in Manila were sent to Spain.



ENGLISH EXPLORERS AND TRADERS

The English looked with envy on the wealth that Spain was getting from America and that Portugal was getting from India and the East Indies. English sea captains boldly attacked Spanish ships as they came sailing back to Europe heavily loaded with gold and other treasure from the New World. The English who attacked Spanish ships were called "sea dogs." Among the English "sea dogs" who waited in the Caribbean Sea and the

Atlantic for Spanish ships was Francis Drake. On one trip to the Americas Drake was in Panama. From the top of a tree he was able to see the Pacific Ocean, which Balboa had discovered. He decided some day to "sail an English ship in those waters."

Sir Francis Drake Sailed Around the World

In 1547 Francis Drake went across the Atlantic and boldly sailed down the coast of South America and then through the Strait of Magellan. He knew that along the coasts of Peru there would be Spanish ships loaded with the gold and silver the Spanish were taking from the Incas. He found and captured some of these ships. When he had filled his ship, the *Golden Hind*, he hurried farther north.

Drake sailed as far north as Vancouver Island on the west coast of North America. He searched for a strait that might lead east to the Atlantic, but had no more luck finding a strait



The *Golden Hind* came to anchor near what is now San Francisco Bay.



than did the explorers who searched for one from the east side of North America. For a while he probably anchored the *Golden Hind* in the bay we now call San Francisco Bay. Drake knew that he did not dare to return the way he had come, and so he struck out across the Pacific. The *Golden Hind* visited the Moluccas and Java and other islands among the East Indies. By way of the Cape of Good Hope Drake sailed home to England.

The king of Spain was so furious at Francis Drake that he demanded that Queen Elizabeth punish him severely. But there was no punishment awaiting Drake and his crew when the *Golden Hind* sailed into the port of Plymouth one morning in September, 1550. Instead there was ringing of bells and shouting and cheering to greet him. Queen Elizabeth herself journeyed to Plymouth and boarded his ship. There, on the deck of the *Golden Hind*, she bade Captain Drake kneel before her. With the flat side of a sword she touched him lightly on the shoulder and made him a knight, Sir Francis Drake.

Defeat of the Great Armada of Spain

The English sea dogs went right on stopping Spanish ships and helping themselves to their riches. Apparently they thought it was no more wrong to take gold from the Spanish than it was for the Spanish to take it from the Indians. King Philip II of Spain finally lost all patience and decided to take his ships to England to punish the English. In 1588 a large fleet, called the "Great Armada," sailed from Spain to attack England and to drive the troublesome English ships from the seas. After several days of fighting the English defeated the Spanish.

From then on, more and more English boats went to many parts of the world.

THE DUTCH IN THE FAR EAST

The Dutch, in their little country by the North Sea, were skillful sailors. They wanted to share in the riches that Portugal

and Spain were each year gathering in many parts of the world. In 1601 a fleet of four little ships set out from Holland for the East Indies.

Two and a half years later the fleet came back to Holland with a good cargo of pepper and nutmeg. From that time, more and more Dutch fleets sailed to the Spice Islands. Soon the little Dutch trading companies were all combined into the Dutch East India Company. This powerful company built a strongly fortified trading station at Batavia on the island of Java.

From the very rich island of Java, Dutch ships carried back such precious products as coffee, tea, indigo, sugar, mace, nutmeg, camphor, and cloves. From Java the Dutch extended their control to the large island of Sumatra on the east and to the rich Moluccas on the west. They drove the Portuguese out of their trading posts and cities in the East Indies. They also drove the Portuguese out of most of the trading posts and cities they had built in India. The Dutch got control of much of the East Indies.

In less than one hundred and fifty years after Columbus had bravely set out to reach the "Indies" by sailing west, the Europeans had learned a great deal about the world. Spain, Portugal, England, Holland and France claimed almost all of the New World. European nations or their trading companies controlled much of southeastern Asia, also. Over all the seas of the world European ships carried on trade and exchanged ideas.

THE END OF OUR STORY

The story of history which has been told in *Out of the Past* covers thousands of years, and deals with many countries and people. We have seen that historic times began about 6000 years ago.

We have learned that civilized ways of living began in many different places on the earth. We have traced the development of better ways of living among Stone Age people, the Egyptians, the people of the Fertile Crescent, the Greeks, the Ro-



mans, the people of India and China, some of the Indians of the Americas, and many nations of Europe.

The story of *Out of the Past* helps us to understand our world today. We are like artists who have learned how to paint true pictures. *Out of the Past* will help us also to understand about the history of the United States and of Modern Times.

THINGS TO DO

I. QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS.

1. When Vasco da Gama returned to Portugal from India, what did the king of Portugal add to his title?
2. How did the Portuguese gain control of India?
3. Over what other lands in the East did Portugal gain control?
4. What great feat of exploration did Magellan carry out for Spain? What islands did he claim for Spain?
5. From the return of the *Victoria* in 1522 what two important facts did Europeans learn?
6. How did a famous "sea dog" become a knight?
7. What was the Great Armada of Spain? How was it destroyed?
8. How was the East India Company of England formed? How powerful was it?
9. What places in the Far East did the Dutch sailors finally conquer?
10. Can you make a list of the new ideas about the world which the people of Western Europe learned between 1492-1650?

- II. WHERE THEY TRAVELED. Make a list of the places the Europeans visited on their journeys to the Far East. Be sure you can spell the names correctly and locate the places on the map.

- III. WHO'S WHO AMONG THE EXPLORERS OF THE FAR EAST. To your Who's Who list add the names of Ferdinand Magellan and Sir Francis Drake.
- IV. A TIME LINE. Make a list of the important events that took place as the Europeans explored and claimed the Far East. Arrange these events on a time line.
- V. A LIST OF GOODS. Pretend that you are a sea captain going to the Far East. Make a list of the things you would get in Asia and the East Indies to carry back on your ship to Europe. Compare your lists with each other. Make a List of Goods for your class book.

LET'S REVIEW

- I. Complete your notebook record for the unit Finding New Lands.
- II. A MATCHING TEST. On a piece of notebook paper copy the list of words in column I. Find the words in column II which match the words in the first column. Put the correct letter beside the right word.
- | | |
|-------------------------------|--|
| 1. Bartholomew Diaz | <i>a.</i> discovered the Pacific |
| 2. Marco Polo | <i>b.</i> had a school for sea captains |
| 3. Christopher Columbus | <i>c.</i> conquered the Aztecs |
| 4. Vasco Núñez de Balboa | <i>d.</i> hunted for the fountain of youth |
| 5. Prince Henry the Navigator | <i>e.</i> traveled to the St. Lawrence |
| 6. Ferdinand Magellan | <i>f.</i> discovered America |
| 7. Pizarro | <i>g.</i> found the Mississippi |
| 8. John Cabot | <i>h.</i> rounded the Cape of Good Hope |
| 9. Cortez | <i>i.</i> made the first trip around the world |

10. Ponce de Leon
- j. traveled to the court of Kublai Khan
 - k. the chief of the Incas
 - l. conquered Peru

III. AN OUT OF THE PAST TIME LINE. Decide on a few of the most important dates and events in each period you have studied in *Out of the Past*. Appoint a committee to make a large class time line that shows Prehistoric Times, Ancient Times, the Middle Ages, the Renaissance, and the period of exploration. On the time line place the dates and events in man's long history that you decide are of the greatest importance.

IV. YOUR COSTUME BOOK AND YOUR BOOK OF HOMES. Add pictures to your Costume Book to show how people dressed in the exploration period. Are there pictures that you want to add to your Book of Homes?

V. THE HALL OF FAME FOR EXPLORERS. Plan a program in which all the famous explorers come to life and meet each other. Each explorer may tell who he is, where he lived, where he traveled and why he feels he should be included in the Hall of Fame. Have a class vote to decide which explorer tells the best story.

VI. LET'S READ.

Chocolate from Mayan to Modern by Eula Long, Aladdin Books, American Book Company

He Went With Marco Polo by Louise Andrews Kent, Houghton Mifflin Company

Spice Ho! by Agnes Danforth Hewes, Alfred A. Knopf
They Put Out to Sea by Roger Duvoisin, Alfred A. Knopf

They Sailed and Sailed by Frances Margaret Fox, E. P. Dutton and Company

The Voyages of Christopher Columbus by Armstrong Sperry, Random House

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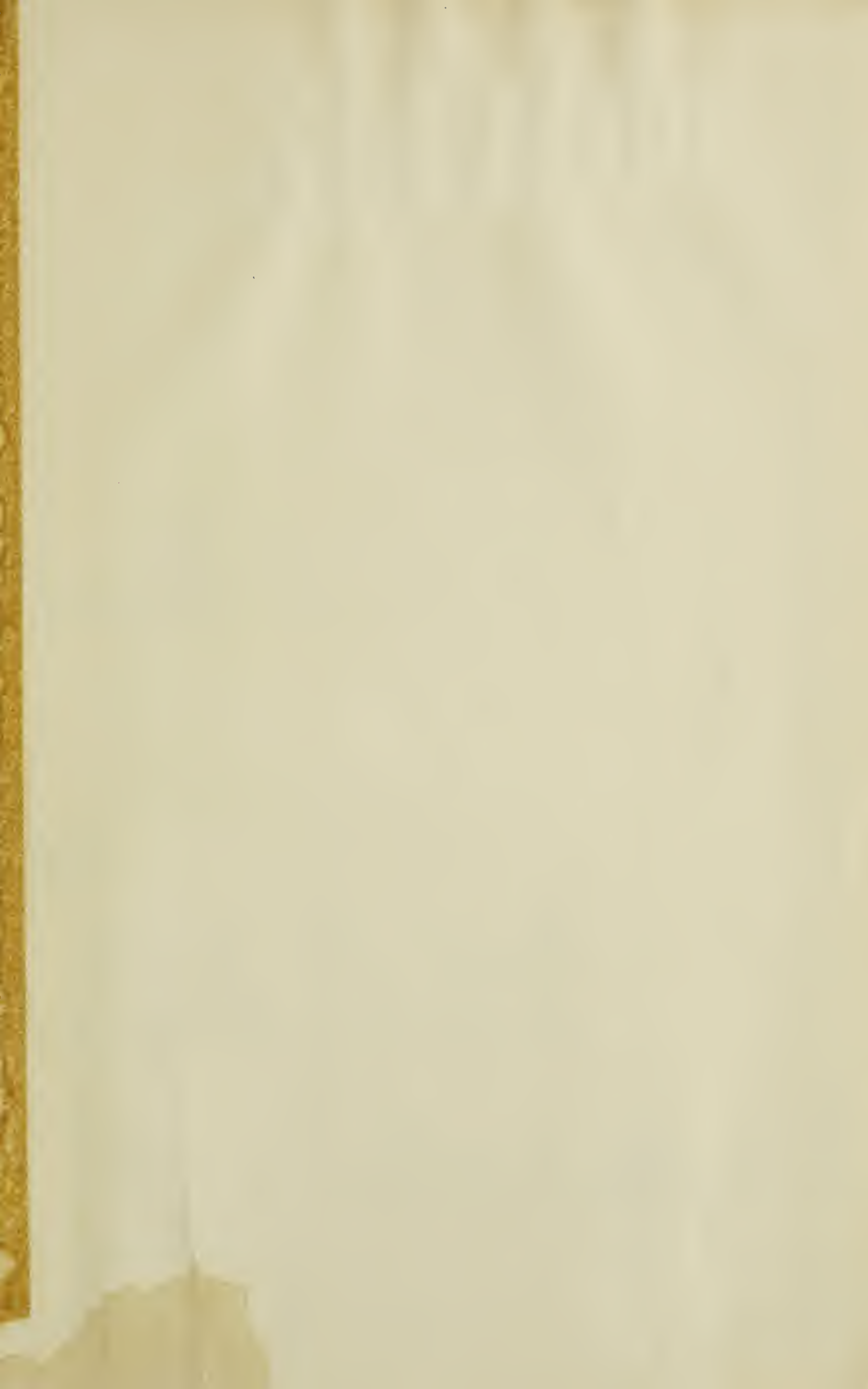
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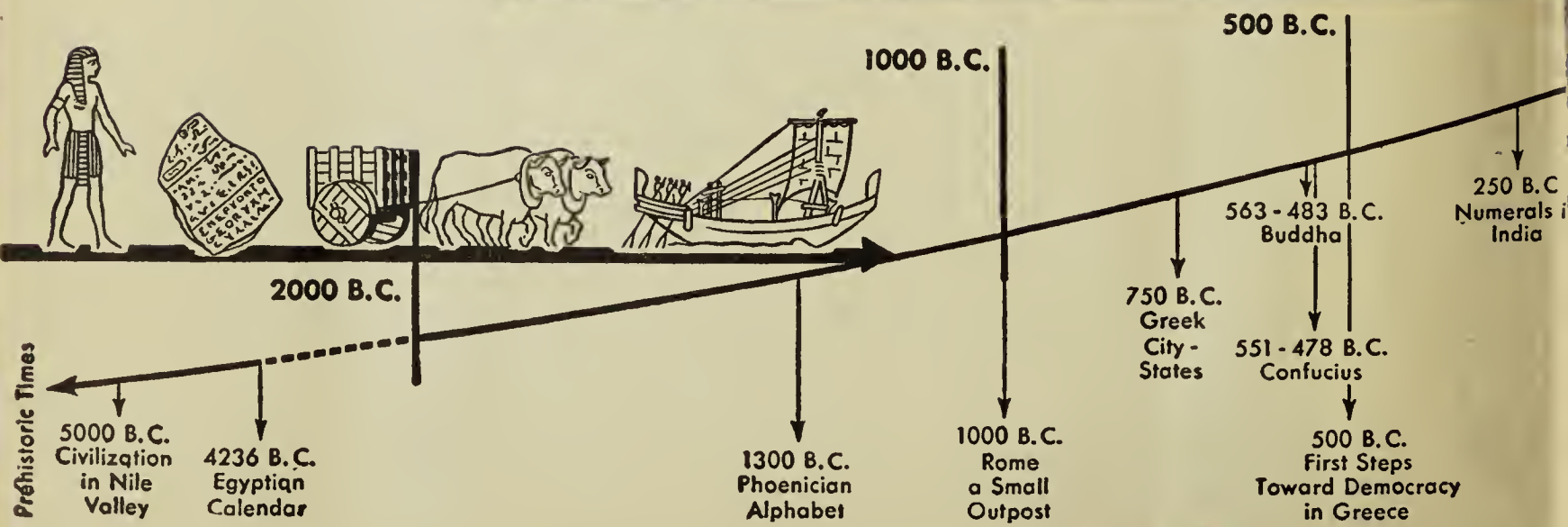
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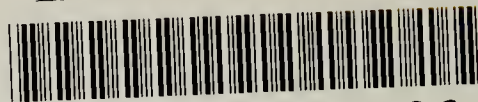
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